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**ABSTRACT**

Using participant observation, interviews, and other ethnographic methods, the author examined organizational structures and administrative processes and behavior in an innovative senior high school located in a large urban area and known for its implementation of individually guided education. Data analysis yielded theories grounded in the study's evidence, which were further analyzed and related to formal theories, including social systems theory, organizational theory, decision theory, leadership theory, change theory, and theories of administrative processes. From the evidence and theories the author draws 16 conclusions regarding institutional roles; role expectations; bureaucratic structures; centralization; job satisfaction; productivity; leadership and decision-making styles; and faculty, parent, and student participation in decisions. Among the conclusions are that leadership, change, and involvement in decisions are interactive; that change processes differ for leaders and group members; and that social systems theory should include new political dimensions. The author notes one or more implications for each of the 16 conclusions and suggests further research to test how widely applicable his conclusions are. The study's interview schedules are included in appendices. (Author/RW)

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Technical Report No. 557

AN ETHNOGRAPHIC CASE STUDY OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE  
ORGANIZATION, PROCESSES, AND BEHAVIOR IN  
A SELECTED SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

by

John B. Artis

Report from the Project on  
Studies of Administration and Organization for Instruction

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Madison, Wisconsin

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# MISSION STATEMENT

The mission of the Wisconsin Research and Development Center is to improve the quality of education by addressing the full range of issues and problems related to individualized schooling. Teaching, learning, and the problems of individualization are given concurrent attention in the Center's efforts to discover processes and develop strategies and materials for use in the schools. The Center pursues its mission by

- conducting and synthesizing research to clarify the processes of school-age children's learning and development
- conducting and synthesizing research to clarify effective approaches to teaching students basic skills and concepts
- developing and demonstrating improved instructional strategies, processes, and materials for students, teachers, and school administrators
- providing assistance to educators which helps transfer the outcomes of research and development to improved practice in local schools and teacher education institutions

The Wisconsin Research and Development Center is supported with funds from the National Institute of Education and the University of Wisconsin.

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*"Someone saw something in you once. That's partly why you are where you are today."*

The above words are particularly appropriate for me now as I reflect on my two years of experience at the University of Wisconsin and completion of my graduate program. Nearly three years ago, Dr. John J. Lane "saw something" in me and brought me up to Madison from DePaul University in Chicago to meet Dr. James M. Lipham. Dr. Lipham "saw something" and agreed to serve as my advisor and became my friend and supporter during my work in the Department of Educational Administration and the Research and Development Center at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. To these gentlemen, I say thank you with deepest regards. You are special men, and I am very fortunate to have known and worked with you.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

|                                                     | <u>Page</u> |
|-----------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| ACKNOWLEDGMENTS . . . . .                           | v           |
| LIST OF FIGURES . . . . .                           | xiii        |
| ABSTRACT . . . . .                                  | xv          |
| CHAPTER                                             |             |
| I. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY . . . . .              | 1           |
| Background of the Study . . . . .                   | 3           |
| Statement of the Problem . . . . .                  | 4           |
| Significance of the Study . . . . .                 | 5           |
| Overview of the Study . . . . .                     | 6           |
| II. DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY . . . . .                | 8           |
| Rationale for the Methodology Utilized . . . . .    | 8           |
| Selection of the School . . . . .                   | 10          |
| Description of the Selected School . . . . .        | 15          |
| City and District Background . . . . .              | 15          |
| School Description . . . . .                        | 16          |
| Administrative Arrangements . . . . .               | 16          |
| Instructional Programming for the                   |             |
| Individual Student . . . . .                        | 20          |
| Curricular Arrangements . . . . .                   | 22          |
| Community Learning Experiences and                  |             |
| Work Experiences . . . . .                          | 23          |
| Continuing Research and Development . . . . .       | 24          |
| Description of the Data Collection Method . . . . . | 27          |
| The Initial Interview Schedule . . . . .            | 28          |
| The Revised Interview Schedule . . . . .            | 30          |

| <u>Chapter</u>                                                              | <u>Page</u> |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| The Field-Related Propositions . . . . .                                    | 33          |
| Observation Procedures . . . . .                                            | 35          |
| Analysis of Documents . . . . .                                             | 37          |
| Data Gathering Procedure . . . . .                                          | 38          |
| Analysis of the Data . . . . .                                              | 43          |
| Limitations of the Study . . . . .                                          | 45          |
| III. PRESENTATION OF DATA . . . . .                                         | 48          |
| Organizational Structure . . . . .                                          | 48          |
| Proposition One--Level of Administration . . .                              | 49          |
| Proposition Two--Role Expectations of the<br>Three Levels . . . . .         | 53          |
| Proposition Three--The Departmental Structure                               | 56          |
| Proposition Four--New Managerial Roles . . . .                              | 58          |
| Administrative Processes . . . . .                                          | 63          |
| Proposition Five--Schoolwide Curricular<br>Philosophy . . . . .             | 63          |
| Proposition Six--Balance of the School's<br>Program . . . . .               | 66          |
| Proposition Seven--Curricular Planning . . . .                              | 70          |
| Proposition Eight--Efforts to Individualize<br>a School's Program . . . . . | 72          |
| Proposition Nine--Shared Decision Making . . .                              | 77          |
| Administrative Behavior . . . . .                                           | 84          |
| Proposition Ten--Administrative Role Behavior                               | 84          |
| Summary . . . . .                                                           | 95          |



| <u>Chapter</u>                                                                     | <u>Page</u> |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| IV. PRESENTATION OF RELATED FORMAL THEORY AND<br>AN ANALYSIS OF THE DATA . . . . . | 96          |
| Social Systems Theory . . . . .                                                    | 97          |
| Organization Theory . . . . .                                                      | 104         |
| Decision Theory . . . . .                                                          | 118         |
| Leadership Theory . . . . .                                                        | 128         |
| Change Theory . . . . .                                                            | 136         |
| Administrative Processes . . . . .                                                 | 145         |
| Grounded Theory . . . . .                                                          | 149         |
| Modifications of Formal Theory and<br>New Grounded Theory . . . . .                | 150         |
| Social systems theory . . . . .                                                    | 151         |
| Weberian ideal bureaucratic model . . . . .                                        | 156         |
| Decision theory . . . . .                                                          | 159         |
| Leadership . . . . .                                                               | 165         |
| Change theory . . . . .                                                            | 170         |
| V. OVERVIEW, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS . . . . .                               | 184         |
| Overview of the Study . . . . .                                                    | 184         |
| Conclusions and Implications for Practice . . . . .                                | 188         |
| Implications for Research . . . . .                                                | 206         |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .                                                             | 210         |
| APPENDICES . . . . .                                                               | 223         |
| Appendix A--Abstract of Proposed Research . . . . .                                | 223         |
| Appendix B--Initial Interview Schedule . . . . .                                   | 226         |
| Appendix C--Revised Interview Schedule . . . . .                                   | 231         |
| Appendix D--Human Subject Release Form . . . . .                                   | 234         |

# LIST OF FIGURES

| <u>Figure</u> |                                                                                                 | <u>Page</u> |
|---------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| 2.1           | Curriculum Planning Process of Central High School . . . . .                                    | 25          |
| 4.1           | Model of the Major Dimensions of Behavior in a Social System . . . . .                          | 98          |
| 4.2           | Structural Elements Using Getzels-Guba Systems Model with Abbott Adaptations . . . . .          | 153         |
| 4.3           | Political Dimensions of the Social Systems Model . . . . .                                      | 155         |
| 4.4           | A Model of the Escalation Process . . . . .                                                     | 167         |
| 4.5           | Phases of Leader-Member Change Relations . . . . .                                              | 171         |
| 4.6           | The Interaction of Leadership Styles, Stages, and Change . . . . .                              | 175         |
| 4.7           | The Model of the Relationship Between Leadership, Change, and Decision-Making Process . . . . . | 179         |

## Abstract

# AN ETHNOGRAPHIC CASE STUDY OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION, PROCESSES, AND BEHAVIOR IN A SELECTED SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

John Burl Artis

Under the Supervision of Professor James M. Lipham

The major purposes of this study were to describe and explain the administrative organization, processes, and behavior and to generate grounded theory about the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in an innovative senior high school. The school chosen to participate in this study was nationally known as a leader in implementing individualized learning programs.

The data were gathered using the ethnographic approach including participant observation, open-ended interviews, and document analysis. This study provided an understanding of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; the impact of the administration on the school; and generalizable propositions based on grounded theory.

The major conclusions of the study were as follows:

1. When new institutional roles are created, role expectations and role definitions should be carefully delineated.
2. The need exists for congruence between the role expectations held for administrators by the members of the system and the

role expectations and need-dispositions held by the administrators.

3. Social systems theory should be modified to include new political dimensions.

4. In an ideal bureaucracy, the efficiency of the organization is affected when the hierarchy of authority and the rules and regulations are followed from the bottom up, but sometimes not followed from the top down. Also, productivity connected with high centralization is affected by the leadership style of administrators.

5. Organizations high in centralization, formalization, stratification, and complexity are not necessarily high in job satisfaction or adaptiveness.

6. Discrepancies between the perceived decision-making style of the administrators and the actual decision-making style can lead to isolated departments, uneven support for various departments, and political decision making by administrators and department heads.

7. Administrative defense of faltering programs may stem from the need for political survival.

8. Administrators can influence the direction of organizational change by controlling budgetary decisions.

9. The effectiveness of faculty, parent, and student advisory forums is related to whether or not their input is used in making decisions.



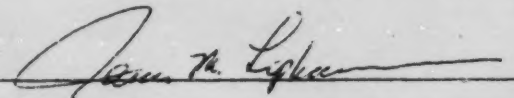
10. The steps in the change process differ for leaders and group members, and an appropriate mix of leadership stages and styles is necessary at the different steps of the change process.

11. Leadership, change, and decision involvement are interactive.

12. Decision involvement exists as a result of interest, expertise, and the need to represent constituent interests.

As a result of these conclusions, numerous implications for practice and further research were suggested.

APPROVED:



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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

American high schools have been examined by many researchers and practitioners over the past decade in an attempt to understand and improve this traditional institution in our changing society. This study followed in that mold and attempted to understand the impact of administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behaviors in an innovative senior high school that had attempted to individualize instruction.

The research was conducted as a part of a continuing effort by the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Individualized Schooling to identify those factors needed to produce the desired comprehensive objectives of individualized secondary schooling (Klausmeier, 1979). Previous efforts conducted by the Center to gain an understanding of the factors related to individualizing secondary schooling (Daresh, 1978; Lehr, 1979; Neiner, 1978; Speed, 1979; Watkins, 1978) focused on facilitative environments, staff development, change, and decision making. While these studies helped foster a better understanding of senior high schools that individualize instruction, the reports were limited in scope to particular variables.

The purpose of this study and two companion studies (Brittenham, 1980; Zimman, 1980) was to gain an understanding of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors within a school that attempted to individualize instruction. Ethnographic research techniques were used to gain an understanding of the framework within which those in the school interpreted their thoughts, feelings, and actions (Wilson, 1977). While utilizing in-depth interviews, daily participant observation within the school, and document analysis similar to other studies that gained a more comprehensive view of the organization and operation of schools (Cusick, 1973; Jackson, 1968; Sarason, 1971; Wolcott, 1973), this researcher focused on the administrative impact on an innovative senior high school.

The data were analyzed according to the precepts of ethnographic techniques (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975; Glaser & Strauss, 1967), and grounded theory emerged from the evidence gathered. The grounded theory was analyzed and compared to formal theory for relationships to formal theory and either confirmed the formal theory or suggested variations of the formal theory. Where relationships to formal theory did not emerge, new grounded theory was developed.

This chapter includes the background of the study, a statement of the problem, the significance of the study, and an overview of the study.

### Background of the Study

Before 1977, the efforts of the Wisconsin Research and Development Center had concentrated on the process of individualized schooling in elementary schools. Individually Guided Education (IGE) was introduced as an alternative form of education and was adopted by over 2,000 elementary schools throughout the United States.

In the winter of 1977, the staff of the Wisconsin Research and Development Center initiated an extension of IGE to secondary schools. A set of process objectives was developed by Klausmeier (1977) and was used as a framework for developing a model for individualized secondary schooling. In the spring of 1977, participants at a secondary school conference held at the Research and Development Center were asked to examine the process objectives for desirability and feasibility of implementation. Based on this initial work, two studies (Klausmeier, T., 1978; Maier, 1978) were conducted in six junior high and five senior high schools to determine the desirability and feasibility of implementing the process objectives.

Maier's (1978) study determined a high level of desirability for the implementation of the process objectives developed by Klausmeier, but indicated a very low level of feasibility for such implementation in senior high schools. Complex inhibiting issues were identified and led the research and Development Center staff to begin exploring alternative modes of administering and organizing



instruction in senior high schools that attempted to individualize instruction. Studies by Daresh (1978), Neiner (1978), and Watkins (1978) were done to examine specific aspects of the administration and organization of six senior high schools that had attempted to individualize instruction.

This present study, along with two parallel studies by Brittenham (1980) and Zimman (1980), evolved from the above events and studies. The studies grew out of recognized needs for a comprehensive picture of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in secondary schools that attempt to individualize education. The studies and the others in the Secondary School Project of the Wisconsin Research and Development Center were conducted to provide a comprehensive view of administrative organization, processes, and behavior in secondary schools that attempt to individualize instruction. Also, alternative models of administrative organization will be suggested to senior high schools seeking to change their administrative and organizational structures to promote individualized schooling.

#### Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to describe and explain the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in an innovative senior high school that has attempted to individualize instruction, and to generate grounded theory about those same

administrative organization, processes, and behaviors. This study consisted of an intensive, comprehensive analysis of the administrative impact in a single senior high school and used ethnographic field methodology to observe and describe the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in that school.

Initially, no further definition of the problem was done. Further definition was considered inappropriate when using the ethnographic field research methodology (Cusick, 1973; Wilson, 1977; Wolcott, 1973). Grounded theoretical propositions emerged from the field-related data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), and were used to confirm, refine, or place emphasis on various aspects of formal theoretical constructs.

#### Significance of the Study

This study was designed to investigate the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in an innovative senior high school that attempted to individualize instruction. The study was deemed to be significant for the following reasons:

1. The findings described and explained fully the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in an innovative senior high school that attempted to individualize instruction.
2. The findings generated grounded theoretical propositions about the administrative organization, processes, and

behaviors in an innovative senior high school that attempted to individualize instruction.

3. The findings supported existing formal theory, highlighted needed emphasis on some aspects of existing formal theory, identified needed modifications of some aspects of existing formal theory, and suggested new theory.
4. The findings should have relevance for practicing school administrators by identifying organizational structures and corresponding processes and behaviors necessary to establish alternative administrative arrangements.
5. The findings should have relevance for the Research and Development Center by identifying important variables related to administrative organizations, processes, and behaviors utilized by an innovative senior high school that attempted to individualize instruction.

#### Overview of the Study

This chapter included an introduction to the study, the background and statement of the problem, and the significance of the study.

Chapter II includes the design and methodology of the study. Chapter III presents and describes the data. Chapter IV includes a review of pertinent theoretical literature and an analysis of the

data collected. Chapter V gives an overview of the study, a summary of major findings, conclusions, and the implications for further research and practice.



## CHAPTER II

### DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter contains a description of the design and methodology of the study. There are five sections including: a rationale for the methodology utilized, a description of the school selection process, a summary of the data collection methods, a delineation of the data analysis process, and a consideration of the limitations of the study.

#### Rationale for the Methodology Utilized

This study used ethnographic research techniques in order to gain an understanding of the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior within an innovative secondary school. Methods included in-depth interviews, daily observations, and document analysis.

Ethnographic field studies have been described by Kerlinger (1973) as "ex post facto scientific inquiries aimed at discovering the relations and interactions among sociological, psychological, and educational variables in real social structures." Ethnography seeks understanding through qualitative methods such as participant observations, open-ended interviewing, and personal documents.

Ethnographic case studies focus on two levels--description and explanation. The ethnographer is on the scene to describe what

he or she sees, hears, and reads, and then expands his or her descriptions from accounts of the situation by the subjects, usually given in lengthy in-depth interviews. In addition, the researcher is constantly trying to make sense of what he or she observes by seeking the subject's explanation of what has occurred. Thus, the situation is fully described through the senses of the researcher and subjects as well as explained from both points of view (Cusick, 1973).

The ethnographer is trying to develop rational explanations of human action. Wehlage (1978) declared the purpose of field study research as being interested in developing generalizations which describe what people think, and given their perception of reality, why they act the way they do. In the process, the researcher is trying to discover what it is about the structure of schools which limits and shapes and makes more likely the constructions people acquire.

This study used the ethnographic field methodology including participant observation, open-ended interviews, and document analysis to analyze the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior in an innovative high school in order to develop a comprehensive view of the administration impact on the school. This analysis enabled grounded theory to be generated concerning the administrative aspects of secondary schools. Glaser and Strauss (1967) defined grounded theory as being generated

from the data observed and collected through rigorous research. Hypotheses and concepts come from the data and are systematically worked out in relation to the data during the course of the research. Categories, properties, and hypotheses about administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior emerged from the data. Once developed, incidents applicable to each category were compared; categories and properties were integrated; limitations were defined concerning the developing theory; and finally, grounded theory about administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior was written. While, in most instances, the grounded theory confirmed existing formal theory about administrative organization, administrative processes and administrative behaviors, some modifications of existing formal theory emerged and some new theory was developed.

#### Selection of the School

One senior high school was chosen for this ethnographic case study. Concurrently, two other senior high schools were selected for companion field studies. These schools were chosen because they had a reputation for being innovative and in the forefront of individualized instruction.

A careful nationwide search was conducted in order to determine the three schools to be used in the study. Final selection of the three innovative schools was made based on the school having at



least five of the following operational criteria derived from the list of program components for IGE/Secondary (Klausmeier, 1979):

1. Comprehensive Objective 1--Administrative Arrangements.

Decision-making groups were formed that included district committees and councils and also building committees and councils.

2. Comprehensive Objective 2--Organization for Instruction and Advisory Arrangements.

Instruction and Advisory Units were formed consisting of 50 to 200 students and a cooperative team of two to five teachers, usually in the required curricular areas or courses.

3. Comprehensive Objective 3--Instructional Programming for the Individual Student.

This objective has three facets which includes planning each student's individual programs, providing objective based instruction that meets the requirements of the planned program, and evaluating the student's progress in achieving desired outcomes for further direction.

4. Comprehensive Objective 4--Curricular Arrangements.

A curriculum was arranged that was sufficiently comprehensive and flexible so that each student, with the guidance of the student's teacher advisor and parents, could take a total program of courses and other activities that was suited to the individual student's educational needs and other characteristics, and that also met school, district, and state requirements.



5. Comprehensive Objective 5--Community Learning Experiences and Work Experiences. A program of community learning activities and work experiences directly related to the characteristics of the school population and the community was planned, implemented, and evaluated at district, school, and teacher-student levels.

6. Comprehensive Objective 6--Evaluation. Records were kept on students' programs toward attaining the objectives of the units, classes or courses in which they were enrolled, and each student's total educational program was monitored and improved through systematic evaluation.

7. Comprehensive Objective 7--Student Decision-Making Arrangements. Students progressively assumed responsibility for working independently with a lesser amount of adult direction and control. They also assumed responsibility for making decisions about their course objectives and activities, their complete educational programs, and their career preparation, including community learning activities and work experiences.

8. Comprehensive Objective 8--Home-School-Community Relations. Cooperative efforts and effective communications between the school and the community were fostered.

9. Comprehensive Objective 9--Internal and External Support Arrangements. The environment for learning and instruction within the school and for work and nonwork educational experiences in the community was enriched through the intellectual, technical, and

material support provided by the school and district, and by external agencies, such as the state education agency and teacher education institutions.

10. Comprehensive Objective 10--Continuing Research and Development. Student learning and personality development; curricular, instructional, and student-advising arrangements; school-community relations and community educative experiences; and administrative-organizational arrangements became better understood and were improved through continuous research and development conducted by school personnel and cooperating individuals and agencies.

Only senior high schools with grades 9 through 12 were considered. Each of the three schools selected for the companion research indicated some implementation of five or more of the above components of individualized schooling. An initial list of possible senior high schools was developed through an analysis of the work of Daresh (1978), Neiner (1978), and Watkins (1978). Additionally, professional journals were examined, national and state agencies were contacted, and experts in the field of American secondary education were contacted for recommendations concerning senior high schools that might be appropriate for this study. Approximately 15 schools were identified as possible research sites.

Based on this list, telephone contact was made with each potential school. During the initial telephone contact, the researchers asked first how many of the operational criteria the

school satisfied, and second, whether the principal was receptive toward participating in this research project. Abstracts which outlined the nature of the proposed research (Appendix A) were sent to those schools that met the criteria and were interested in participating in the study. The list of schools was then narrowed to eight.

Members of the research team visited the final eight selected schools. Final decisions regarding the participating schools were based on their initial interest, perceptions of the research team after a visit, and the demographic characteristics of the school. The final three schools were chosen for their ability to meet the comprehensive components, their willingness to participate, their geographic location, and the size of their student population.

The school selected for this study was a secondary school in a large urban area with a school enrollment of approximately 2,800 students. The other two schools selected for the two companion studies were in a suburban area with a school enrollment of approximately 1,800 students and in a mid-sized community with a school enrollment of approximately 800 students.

The proper district level administrators were contacted either directly by the research team or indirectly through the building principal. The visit was scheduled so that the researcher and the companion researchers could spend three full weeks on site.



### Description of the Selected School

This section contains a description of the school selected for this study. It includes a description of the city and the district and a description of the school itself. The description of the school is organized according to the ten comprehensive components of secondary schooling (Klausmeier, 1979).

City and District Background. Central High School is located in a city of approximately 30,000. The city has an extensive industrial land site of over 400 acres with four light industrial plants. Transportation services provide easy access to the larger metropolitan area surrounding the city. In addition to the industrial parks, the city is the location of the corporate headquarters for many large industries.

The socioeconomic background of the population of the city can be classified as middle to upper-middle income. The educational and professional background of the population of the city is college oriented with professional-technical vocations. The socioeconomic rank of the city is very high when compared to the remainder of the metropolitan area surrounding the city.

The school district, which is fiscally independent, and governed by a seven-member board, has a total enrollment of 14,000 students. There are several schools and three high schools in the district. Each high school serves a separate community of the township, including some surrounding unincorporated areas.



School Description. Central High School enrolls 2,810 students in grades 9 through 12. Most students come from upper middle-class homes and are predominantly white with large religious and ethnic groups drawn from Catholic and Jewish homes. The median family income of the students at Central High School is \$35,000, with 70 percent having incomes over \$25,000.

The staff of the school is comprised of a principal, an associate principal, an administrative assistant, five administrative coordinators, two assistant coordinators, 18 administrative instructional supervisors, 11 guidance counselors, and 180 teachers. Additionally, there is a district superintendent and eight central office administrators.

The school building was first erected in 1923. Rapid growth in district population has led to 12 major additions to the facility, with the most recent one opening in the fall of 1979. The hub of the building is a two-story Instructional Materials Center. The school is divided into 18 departments, with 17 departmental areas with mostly self-contained classrooms and departmental resource centers.

Administrative Arrangements. The administrative arrangements for Central High School include the leadership team, a middle-level duty-specific team of administrative coordinators, and administrative instructional supervisors in charge of instructional departments.

The leadership team consists of the principal and an associate principal. There is also an administrative assistant who serves under both the principal and the associate principal. Specific areas of responsibility are assigned to each of the positions, except that the principal and the associate principal serve as general administrators of the school. The leadership team meets quite often during the typical school week and also meets with the middle-level administrative coordinators weekly as an administrative council and with the administrative instructional supervisors weekly.

The principal serves as the instructional leader of the school and directs, guides, and coordinates the total educational program. He is expected to strive continually to improve the instructional program and adapt all programs and procedures to the requirements of the individual student. He also clarifies both long- and short-range goals for the school and is accountable for the overall effectiveness of the school.

The principal is charged with fostering sound interpersonal relationships among students, teachers, and administrators. He supervises all personnel in the building and is expected to build a competent and professionally alert staff through sound selection procedures, evaluation procedures, and inservice activities. Effective and efficient administration of the school is his responsibility, and he participates in the making of policy and implements policy at the building level.

The associate principal relieves the principal of impediments which may deter him or her from fulfilling the role of educational leader of the school. The associate principal serves as the principal's primary advisor on all school matters, assists the principal in the development of instructional procedures and practices, shares with the principal the responsibility for the supervision and evaluation of other building administrators, and coordinates the evaluation of all staff with the assistance of the immediate supervisor. The associate principal shares with the principal the responsibility for the preparation of the agenda for meetings with other administrators, cooperates with the principal in establishing the guidelines for research projects, and shares with the principal the responsibility for making school budget recommendations and monitoring its implementation.

The other member of the leadership team, the administrative assistant, has a specific job description with limited authority. The administrative assistant is expected to establish and implement the class schedule, coordinate the computer services, gather data for various research reports, supervise the bookstore, coordinate the open house for parents, and fulfill any other duties assigned by the principal.

The middle-level duty-specific team of administrative coordinators have responsibilities related to their particular areas of expertise. They also meet weekly as an administrative council



with the three members of the leadership team. This team consists of the coordinator of guidance, the coordinator of the instructional materials center, the dean of boys and the associate dean of girls, the coordinator of student activities, the coordinator of athletics, and the associate coordinator of athletics. Although recommendations concerning policy emerge from these meetings, decisions are rarely made by the full administrative council.

The third level of building administrators consists of the instructional supervisors. Instructional supervisors serve as the administrators in charge of their departmental areas. In this role, they are the instructional leaders of their departments. They handle teacher evaluations, recommend hiring and firing, determine budget needs, order supplies, assign teaching schedules, coordinate curriculum planning, and handle minor disciplinary matters that may arise in their areas. Additionally, they meet weekly with the leadership team of the school. At these meetings, reports are shared concerning school life and recommendations are solicited concerning policies to be made. As a part of the curriculum planning process, the instructional supervisors also provide input to decision making concerning new curricula.

There are numerous advisory councils who meet with the principal and other administrators to give input to administrative decision making. Parent advisory councils meet once a month with the principal and other appropriate administrators. Additionally,



parents serve in advisory roles for each department and serve in the curriculum planning process at the departmental level.

Student advisory forums meet at least once a month with the principal and other appropriate administrators. Any student with a free period at the time of the meeting may attend the meetings and offer opinions about administrative policies. Additionally, students serve in advisory roles for each department as a part of the curriculum planning process.

The faculty advisory council meets once a month with the principal and other administrators. Faculty members are elected to this committee and represent departmental areas. They are expected to present concerns from their departments to the administration and offer input concerning administrative policies. Additionally, faculty members serve on the departmental committee as a part of the curriculum planning process.

#### Instructional Programming for the Individual Student.

According to the student handbook, Central High School is committed to the ideal of providing an instructional program which will meet the unique needs, interests, abilities, and aspirations of each of its students. In order to meet this commitment, the instructional program provides options for learning procedures for the students.

Each course at the school is offered under the traditional approach to learning. In addition, a small percentage of the courses are taught under a learning procedure identified as individualized

learning by Central High School. At the time of registration, students choose courses identified as TR (traditional) and IL (individualized learning). The similarities between the two learning modes are:

1. Daily attendance is required in all classes.
2. Purposes and measurable objectives are prepared for all classes.
3. The course content is the same for all courses.
4. Final grades are the same and are A, B, C, D, and F.

Differences exist between the individualized learning and traditional learning modes. In the individualized classes, a variety of activities are used including independent study, while in the traditional classes instruction is teacher led. Students progress at their own rate in the individualized classes, but must progress at the rate of the group in the traditional classes. Students perform the suggested activities at their own discretion and at a minimum level of performance for each objective in the individualized learning classes, but must do all activities at the teacher's discretion with no minimum level of performance in the traditional learning classes.

The school uses a number of agencies to identify individual student needs including the school board, district office for research and development, the building administration, the guidance department, parents, and students themselves. Students identify

their individual needs through past records, pretest and posttests, surveys and questionnaires, interviews, present academic work, and rates of growth as demonstrated by criterion-referenced and norm-referenced evaluative criteria.

Individual students may choose to take course work offered through traditional instructional methods or individualized learning methods. However, when a teacher determines there is a need for a student to change to a different mode of instruction, the teacher notifies the instructional supervisor. The instructional supervisor notifies the student and the parents of the needed change, and if they approve, then the change in instructional mode is made.

Curricular Arrangements. The curriculum at Central High School offers the student a broad variety of choices from which to complete the academic requirements. Graduation includes four units of English, two units of mathematics, one unit of science, two units of social studies, four units of physical education, one-half unit of consumer education, and seven and one-half units of elective courses. A unit of credit represents a year of course work.

Curricular arrangements are departmentalized. The number of curricular offerings is varied and heavily geared toward the college-bound student. Advanced placement courses are offered in all of the major academic areas. Additionally, honors courses are provided in most academic areas.



Districtwide curricular offerings are available for exceptional students. These offerings meet state and federal laws for the exceptional student and are directed by a district administrator. Students are placed in exceptional education classes based on diagnostic tests administered on entry to the school. Additionally, staff members can refer a student thought to be exceptional to a counselor who in turn will involve the special education teacher in a screening and testing procedure to determine appropriate placement.

The school has an extensive extracurricular program directed by an administrator responsible for all student activities. Students participate in the design, implementation, and evaluation of the extracurricular programs through elected class boards and through an elected student association. The school has 12 hobby-leisure, career, school service, and community service clubs. There are four school publications. Two honor groups are available for those students who qualify. Three speech and drama activities and eight music related activities are offered for the students. Students compete athletically in 16 interscholastic activities.

Community Learning Experiences and Work Experiences. The school has two programs designed to foster community learning and work experiences. A diversified cooperative education course is offered through the business department and a building trades course is offered through the industrial arts department.



The diversified cooperative education program is designed to give students training in an occupational area of their choice through on-the-job training. There is a general classroom session which provides the student with information on job interviews, how to advance, fringe benefits, labor unions, human relations, and post high school training. Work stations vary, but are mostly in business and such service areas as landscaping, medical laboratory assisting, marketing, and food management. A student can earn two units of credit in this program.

The building trades program at Central High School is specifically designed to provide vocational training for entrance in building trades or related vocations. Students alternate on a half-day basis between required academic work in school and training on the job. The class project is the building of a house in the immediate area. Students furnish their basic carpentry tools, tool box, and accident insurance. A student can earn two units of credit in this program.

Continuing Research and Development. Central High School has several research and evaluative procedures which they share with the district. The most important of these efforts is the Curriculum Planning Process (see Figure 2.1). The Curriculum Planning Process is initiated each year by each departmental instructional supervisor. A committee is formed consisting of departmental staff members, representative interested students, representative

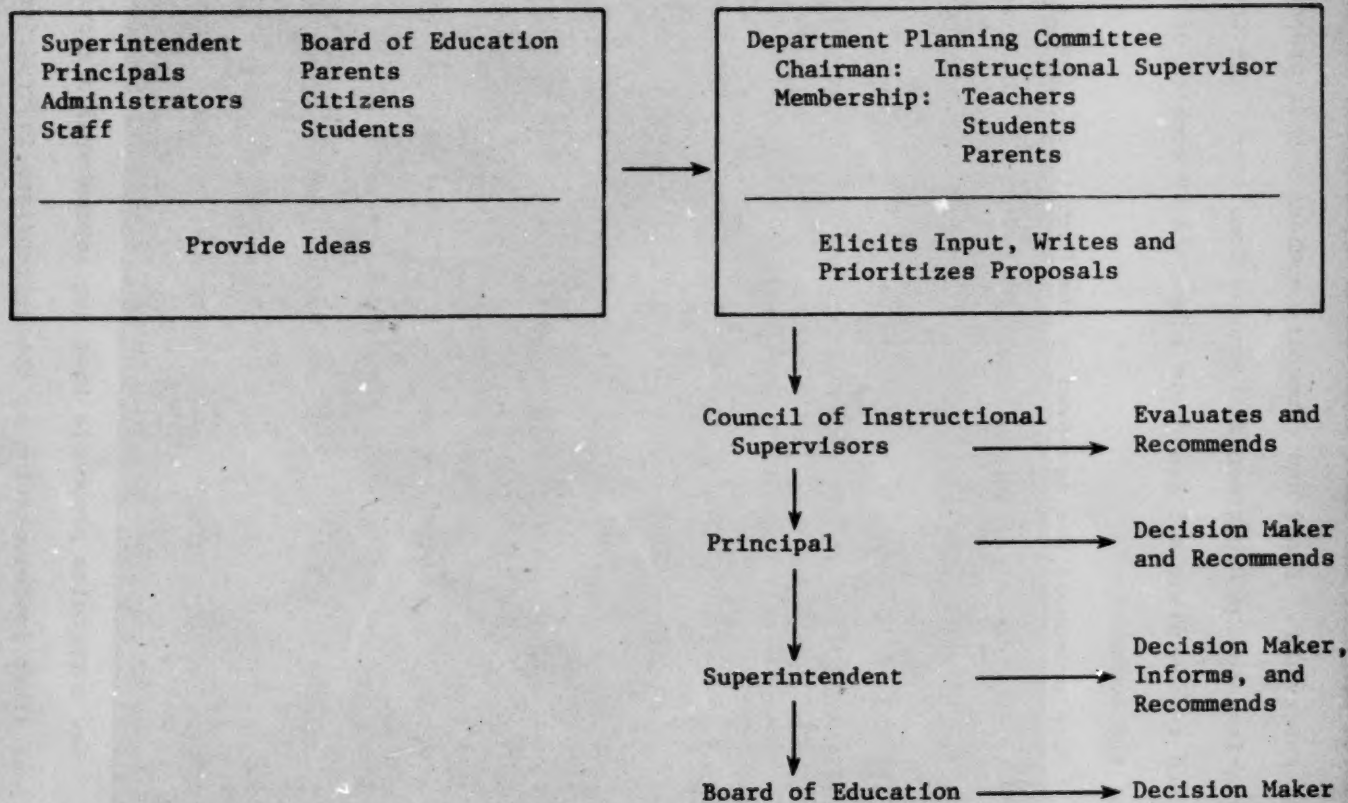


Figure 2.1. Curriculum Planning Process of Central High School.

interested parents, and other individuals appointed by the instructional supervisor. Staff and community members submit proposal applications to the Departmental Planning Committee. The Committees meet and review plans and proposals submitted by members of the staff and of the community.

Once proposals are approved by the Committees, they are reviewed by the Council of Instructional Supervisors. This particular review is to take place by the second Friday in December. Instructional supervisors evaluate proposals, place the proposals in priority order, and submit their recommendations to the principal.

The principal accepts or rejects proposals, places the proposals in priority order, and submits recommendations to the administrative assistant to the superintendent. The principal is to complete this process by the final school day before winter recess. No proposal will be implemented without the approval of the principal.

Proposals are reviewed by the administrative assistant to the superintendent and the superintendent, recommended, placed in priority order, and forwarded to the board of education. The superintendent has to finish this process by the third Monday in February. The superintendent can overrule a curricular proposal recommended by the principal, but he rarely does so.

New curriculum proposals that are implemented are evaluated one year after implementation by the appropriate instructional

supervisor and the associate principal. The evaluation attempts to determine if the proposal met the goals or needs as predicted and if the approval was justified. This report, together with a recommendation concerning the continuance of the changed curriculum are to be shared with the Departmental Curriculum Planning Committee and with the board of education.

Additionally, there is supposed to be an annual review of departmental curricular offerings by the instructional supervisor and the associate principal. This evaluation is to be done from March through June and then shared with the Departmental Curriculum Planning Committee. The Departmental Curriculum Planning Committee uses this evaluative information when considering new course proposals.

The district also has a director of research and computer services who works with the administration and staff at Central High School. This person conducts one or two major research projects annually and has major impact on the school through coordinating various reports and data concerning the testing programs geared to determine the efficiency, effectiveness, and economy of the district's and school's programs.

#### Description of the Data Collection Method

The data for this study were gathered through the use of interviews, participant observations, and document analysis. In



terms of actual instrumentation, as a device for gathering the data, there was an initial interview schedule (Appendix B) developed before site entry and a revised interview schedule (Appendix C) developed after one week on site in the school. Field-related propositions were then developed and validated after two weeks on site in the school.

In addition, the researchers used participant observations, where specific individuals were shadowed for specified periods of time, and the actions and words of that individual were recorded verbatim. Documents concerning recent school life, curriculum guides, school forms, and school announcements were gathered and brought back from the school.

The following sections describe the initial interview schedule, the revised interview schedule, the field-related propositions, observation procedures, and documents gathered from the field. The final section will describe the actual procedure used by the researchers in determining exactly who to interview, who to observe, how to alter the interview schedule, and the tentative propositions to be validated.

#### The Initial Interview Schedule

The initial interview schedule was developed by the researcher and the two co-researchers before entry into the school. This schedule was designed to gather information about the administrative organization, administrative processes, and administrative behavior.

in the school as perceived by the members of the educational community of the school. Interviews were conducted on site by the three researchers (the author and two co-researchers) and normally lasted for approximately two hours, although some interviews lasted as long as six hours. Each interviewee signed an Informed Consent Form (Appendix D). The interview schedule contained both open-ended and focused questions. The following open-ended questions were asked:

1. Discuss the strengths and positive aspects of the school.
2. Discuss the weaknesses and concerns you have about the school.
3. Discuss the major issues facing the school.

The three open-ended questions often served as the impetus for eliciting from the interviewee the information necessary to answer the focused questions. If such was not the case, then the researcher asked the interviewee to comment about the administrative organization of the school, the administrative impact on the curriculum philosophy and design of the school, the administrative staff relations, the administrative impact on the teacher advisor program if applicable, the administrative impact on the home-school-community relations, and the administrative influence on the evolution of the school.

The initial interview schedule was followed religiously by the research team during the first week on site. Probes were used only to ascertain the meaning the respondents assigned to various

events and to determine what the subjects said about the way things ought to be (Wolcott, 1975). Necessarily, the questions, both open-ended and focused, were framed in general terms in order to refrain from imposing preconceptions and perhaps misconceptions on the setting (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975).

Approximately 25 interviews were conducted during the first week by the three members of the research team. During the first week, every effort was made to interview all building-level administrators, a representative number of teachers, reputationally identified parents, and student leaders. In the case of Central High School, the number of building-level administrators was so large that not all of them were interviewed during the first week, but they were all interviewed by the end of the second week. Additionally, the superintendent and two other district-level administrators were interviewed during the first week.

#### The Revised Interview Schedule

By interviewing all or nearly all of the administrators, representative teachers, parents identified reputationally as knowledgeable about the school, and elected student leaders, the research team began to cultivate what Wilson (1977) called an empathetic understanding with the participants and a unique insight into the social setting of the school.

At the end of the first week, the research team pulled away from the field and analyzed the data generated through the interviews,

daily observations, and reading of documents related to the school. By analyzing the data, the researchers began to ascertain categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems facing the school (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

A second, revised interview schedule (Appendix C) was developed out of the tentatively identified categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems facing Central High School. This new interview schedule was then used as the basic interview format along with the initial three open-ended questions from the first interview schedule. What emerged from the analysis of the data after the first week at Central High School were the following significant questions:

1. Who were the problem solvers in the school?
2. Who controlled the budget?
3. How effective were the instructional supervisors and how was their role different now than when they were departmental chairpersons?
4. Was there a possible split between the administration and the staff and how much of the possible split was historically related to a district strike and a curriculum controversy?
5. Who was responsible for the new building additions?
6. What was the impact of the district superintendent at the school on a daily basis?



7. How effective was the curriculum and were all students served by the curriculum?
8. Was there any articulated curriculum philosophy?
9. What were the contributions of the principal to the school?
10. How did parents and students get their concerns dealt with by the school?

Finally, each of the 35 respondents interviewed according to this revised interview schedule were asked to comment about what in their view would improve the administrative structure, administrative processes, and administrative behavior at the school.

The revised interview schedule was used by the research team during the second week of interviewing and the first two days of the third week. Thirty-five people were interviewed with this interview schedule, including the remainder of the building administrators, randomly selected teachers, selected teachers referred to the research team, volunteer teachers and students, and reputationally selected parents and members of the community. The selection procedures utilized by the research team have been used by numerous other ethnographic researchers such as Hunter (1953); Dahl, (1961); Becker, Geer, Hughes, and Strauss (1961); Wolcott (1973); and by researchers previously connected with the University of Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Individualized Schooling, including Daresh (1978), Neiner (1978), and Watkins (1978). All

building administrators were included in the interview sample because the focus of the study was on administrative organization, processes, and behavior.

The revised interview schedule was designed to disprove the tentative findings of the research team. Particular phenomena had emerged after the first week on site; and by suspending belief in such phenomena and asking questions designed to determine negative instances, the research team hoped to revise, alter, and reject those tentative findings initially identified (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Bruyn, 1970).

#### The Field-Related Propositions

By looking for the negative instance, the research team strengthened the reliability of the research propositions. The research propositions became more data related and data specific (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961; Cusick, 1973; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Relationships among phenomena emerged, and the meaning attached to particular phenomena by the members of the social system became clear (Bruyn, 1970; Wehlage, 1978).

At the end of the second week and a half, the research team pulled back from the research site and examined the findings. The initial categories, properties, and hypotheses were analyzed and compared with findings generated as a result of the revised interview schedule (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Those initial categories, properties, and hypotheses were revised, altered, or discarded as

a result of discoveries made during the second round of interviewing, observations, and document analysis (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Iannaccone, 1975).

A set of field-related propositions emerged from the above analysis. These propositions attempted to describe the world of the school as seen by those participating in it (Wehlage, 1978). These field propositions identified, clarified, and restated problems as identified by the data from the school (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Iannaccone, 1975).

The field-related propositions reflected what was perceived to exist in terms of administrative organization, processes, and behaviors at the school. Twenty propositions emerged. They dealt with the organizational structure and role fulfillment; leadership processes and behavior; curriculum history, structure, and procedures for change; evaluative processes utilized by the administration; decision-making structures and processes; superintendent behavior; budgetary processes; and staff morale and isolation.

The field-related propositions were presented to various respondents in order to determine which propositions stood the test of the perceptions of those in the system. Approximately one-third of the initial interviewees were asked to comment on the field-related propositions. Before sharing these field-related propositions, the research team requested that those interviewees insure a reverse confidentiality with the research team. The purpose for



this request was to limit system pollution of the propositions and determine individual responses to the propositions.

Individuals were chosen to share in reviewing the field-related propositions based on their positions within the school organization and their attitudes toward the organization as determined by the research team (Dahl, 1961; Wolcott, 1973). Individuals perceived to be highly supportive of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; individuals perceived to be reflective and sometimes critical of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; and individuals perceived to be highly critical of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors were presented with the field-related propositions. Again, the research team was searching for negative instances, and only those propositions which stood the test of the overwhelming majority of the above groups were assured to be accurate perceptions about the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors at the school (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Bruyn, 1970).

#### Observation Procedures

Daily observations of the school and related activities were made by the research team in order to determine the administrative impact on the school and its activities. Participant observation techniques as defined by Vidich (1969) and Cusick (1973) were used. The research team spent several days shadowing the key administrators of the school. A written record was kept of every activity



performed by the key administrator. The time, the surroundings, the verbal commentary, and the nonverbal actions of the key administrator were all noted. No attempt to predetermine categories was made by the researchers.

All key administrative meetings were attended by one or more of the researchers. These included principal and associate principal meetings, principal and associate principal meetings with district administrators, administrative council meetings, and administrative instructional supervisor meetings. Additionally, meetings of the board of education, parent advisory council, and student advisory council were attended by the research team. Careful records of all verbal comments and notations of nonverbal reactions were made concerning each of these meetings.

Daily observations of school activities were also made by the researchers. Representative classes were visited in nearly every academic department. Schoolwide assemblies, student council meetings, and sporting events were attended. The research team ate lunch in the faculty cafeteria and observed and recorded various conversations. Daily visits to key places within the school, such as the instructional materials center, the student activities hall, the center for the fine arts, and other heavily used facilities were made and observations were noted.

### Analysis of Documents

Pertinent documents that were available were collected at the school and the district office. Included were minutes and agendas of meetings, program descriptions, daily announcements, school newspapers, accrediting association self-study reports, accrediting association visitation team reports, pamphlets and articles written about the school and its programs by the principal and others, self-study reports, city newspapers, and other pertinent information. The documents that were collected and analyzed gave some historical perspective and often covered aspects of the school's life not known to all participants nor observed by the research team (McCall & Simmons, 1969).

The analysis of the documents was initially done in the field and then more carefully completed once the research team left the research site. The various documents were revealing in several ways. Discrepancies between written documents and actual practice were noted and provided the basis for determining parts of the revised interview schedule and the field-related propositions. As noted, an historical perspective was gained by analyzing the various documents. Insights concerning what information was distributed to whom and how was gained through reviewing these documents. Communication channels to the staff, students, and community were identified and then checked through formal questions to various participants. Further analysis of the documents upon leaving the

research site provided further evidence to support many of the commentaries of the interviewees.

#### Data Gathering Procedure

Based on the research focus, the emphasis on the administrative impact on a school by looking at the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors, the research team decided to interview all building-level administrators. All of the building administrators with the exception of the associate dean of students and the associate coordinator of athletics were interviewed. Additionally, four of the nine district administrators were interviewed, including the superintendent, the director of personnel, the director of special education, and the director of research. The total number of administrators interviewed was twenty-five.

Staff members initially interviewed were chosen based on their reputations as leaders of particular points of view. In most cases, this information came through referral from an administrator or from a document where the individual was named. The fortunate timing of the visit of the research team immediately after the school had undergone an accreditation evaluation meant that numerous faculty members had become knowledgeable about certain aspects of the school through the self-study prepared for the accreditation team. Wherever possible, the chairpersons of these various committees were interviewed.



Additional staff members chosen to be interviewed were randomly selected. The criteria used to select these respondents attempted to ensure that teachers from every department, veteran teachers with ten or more years of experience, and new teachers with less than five years of experience were interviewed.

Parents and students were chosen to be interviewed initially as a result of the positions they held. Efforts were made to interview elected student leaders, parents who were board members, and parents who served on various committees connected with the school. Later, parents and students who had been referred to the research team because of their knowledge or points of view were also interviewed. All possible attempts were made to interview parents and students who were active in the school community and held both positive and negative attitudes about the school and its programs.

Observations were conducted throughout the school, but shadow observations were done of administrators only. Again, because of the emphasis of the study, the shadow observations were designed to gather information about administrators and the actions they took as a part of the organization, as well as their personal behavior. Both the principal and the associate principal were shadowed by two members of the research team at different times. Additionally, a middle-level administrator and an instructional supervisor were shadowed by members of the research team.



During observations, the research team attempted to record any verbal commentary, specific actions by the administrators and others, nonverbal behavior of administrators, and behaviors of others. Later, the observations were examined, compared, and contrasted with information gathered from the interviewing process.

At the end of the first week on site, the research team had interviewed 25 people, observed within the school daily, shadowed the principal and associate principal, and gathered and read weekly and daily school documents and other historical documents about the school. The initial interview schedule was used for the first 25 interviews.

Fortified with the above data, the research team pulled back from the field site and analyzed the data to discover categories, properties, and hypotheses related directly to the general problems of Central High School regarding their administrative organization, processes, and behaviors (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Tentative hypotheses emerged and then became the basis for a revised interview schedule to be used during the next stage of the research process. The revised interview schedule was school specific and used the language of the actual school to ascertain information. The questions for the new revised interview schedule were created around tentative findings and were asked specifically to acquire replies which would confirm or deny initial hypotheses about the school.

The initial hypotheses were as bias free as possible given the limitations of any ethnographic study. The use of the three-member research team with constant feedback and discussion shared with one another allowed the data-related statements to be much more objective than might a single researcher have achieved. Additionally, tentative hypotheses emerged directly from the data (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975), and reflected the perceived reality of those who actually lived within the school social system (Cusick, 1973; Wehlage, 1978).

Throughout the next week and a half, the revised interview schedule was used. Further observations were done and documents gathered. As this new evidence was gathered, it was compared with the tentative hypotheses. This resulted in the revision of some tentative hypotheses and the rejection of others (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The initial perceptions of the research team were validated through examining the newly gathered evidence and through living in the system (Cusick, 1973).

Based on the work of the first two and a half weeks, the research team developed a clearer understanding of the meaning of the phenomena observed (Bruyn, 1970). The tentative hypotheses were revised, limited, rejected, and rewritten into field-related propositions (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The field-related propositions were systematically worked out in relationship to the field data

(Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The three-member research team, with their various personal analyses, with their various viewpoints from the respondents they contacted, and with their own personal experiences, became the actual instrument for validating the field-related propositions (Cusick, 1973).

To further validate the propositions, the propositions were introduced into the system at Central High School. No new persons were interviewed or asked to comment about these propositions. Individuals who had initially been interviewed were asked to comment about the propositions and confirm or deny their validity. Those individuals were asked to agree not to discuss these propositions with any other members of the school community. They were warned that these field-related propositions were still tentative and that if they disagreed with propositions, they were to clearly state those objections.

Individuals responding to the field-related propositions were chosen because of their personal opinions and attitudes about the administrative organization, processes, and behavior. The research team was seeking negative instances (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961) whereby particular people could illustrate that things were not the way the field-related propositions said they were. Individuals were chosen in equal numbers from three groups: those who adamantly supported the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; those who reflected and disagreed with some aspects of

the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors; and those who adamantly opposed the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors. Propositions that were supported by all three groups were retained as stated; propositions that were opposed by all three groups were rejected; and propositions that were partially supported were revised according to the necessity for further analysis.

#### Analysis of the Data

Numerous commentators have noted that in an ethnographic study data gathering and analysis take place simultaneously (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lutz & Iannaccone, 1969). The research followed a seven-step process as outlined by Bruyn (1970) whereby particular data were investigated, the essence of the data was investigated, relationships among the essence of the data were noted, modes of how the data appeared were noted, reactions to the data by those involved were noted, belief in the existence of the data was suspended in order not to pollute the study, and the meaning of the data was interpreted.

The analysis of the data followed a four-step process described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) as the constant comparative method. The constant comparative method generated and suggested many categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems related to the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors at Central High School. B. developing the above mentioned



categories, properties, and hypotheses, incidents applicable to each category were compared with the category; categories and their properties were integrated into tentative hypotheses; the tentative hypotheses were refined, limited and restated as field-related propositions; and finally, grounded propositions were written as grounded theory.

A comprehensive view of the administrative impact on an innovative high school emerged as grounded data-based propositions about administrative organization, processes, and behaviors. According to the precepts of ethnographic studies (Bogdan & Taylor, 1957; Glaser & Strauss, 1967), these grounded propositions emerged as grounded theory which confirmed much of existing formal theory concerning administrative organization, processes, and behaviors, and identified the need for more emphasis on and refinement of certain parts of existing formal theory.

The grounded theoretical statements were further analyzed by comparing the grounded propositions to existing formal theory. What emerged was the need to compare the grounded theory to social systems theory with emphasis on role congruence and need-dispositions and the resulting role conflicts; organizational theory with emphasis on Weber's ideal bureaucracy and Hage's axiomatic theory; decision theory with emphasis on decision content, decision stages, and decision involvement; leadership theory with emphasis on the stages of leadership and leadership style; and change theory with

emphasis on the stages of the innovative processes and the implementation phases of the change process.

#### Limitations of the Study

All ethnographic field studies are limited by the ability of the researcher collecting the data. As the key instrument of the study, the researcher had to work constantly to ensure objectivity, validity, and reliability. The biases of the researchers had to be taken into account. By using a three-member research team, the researchers continually worked to expose one another's motives and prejudices and worked to correct them.

The time factor was a limitation of the study. First, by being on site only three weeks, only a particular dynamic slice of reality within the life of the organization was examined. Second, not every member of the school community was interviewed and observed. To counter these limitations, the research team asked respondents to view the interview questions over a period of time and as a dynamic whole rather than individualistically. Also, the collection of historical documents and the analysis of these documents was intended to counter this limitation.

The actual data itself were a limitation of the study. The perceptions, feelings, and beliefs of those individuals interviewed, coupled with those documents written by individuals with particular values, feelings, and beliefs made up the bulk of the research data.

Quotations used to illustrate generalizations must be viewed as the statements of individuals who do hold particular values, feelings, and beliefs, and must not be construed as an absolute or complete statement about the school as a social system or about those individuals who are a part of the social system. While the researcher made every effort possible to cut across the system and to gather as many varied viewpoints as possible, and while there was general consensus concerning many of the research categories that emerged as important, the data must be viewed as a limitation of the study.

The study was limited in terms of its generalizability because of the nature of the ethnographic studies. Only one research site was used for the study and the generalizations are based on the data which existed in that one site. While true, Cronbach (1975) noted that all generalizations are limited and decay through time and that the primary goal of social science research is an interpretation in the context of a specific situation and not mere generalization.

In sum, the study does not describe every action. Conditions are specified under which it was culturally appropriate to anticipate certain actions by an individual in a role. Wolcott (1975) noted that an ethnographic study is a theory of cultural behavior in a particular society and is adequate to the extent that the statements of the researcher could be used as instructions for appropriately anticipating the scenes of the society. This study attempted

to reveal the cultural behavior of those members of the social system as that behavior related to their perceptions, attitudes, and values held concerning the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors of the school. In the process, the study revealed much about individual roles; perceptions about individual roles; perceptions about the performance of individual roles; and the relationship between the roles, the perceptions, and the performances as they related to the dynamic wholeness of the system. To the extent that those individuals interviewed and observed were accurate in their perceptions and performed their role in their normal manner, this study succeeded in developing instructions for appropriately anticipating the scene of the school.



## CHAPTER III

## PRESENTATION OF DATA

In this chapter the propositions generated during the three-week visit to Central High School are presented, supporting data are given, and brief explanations of the propositions are offered. Based on the methodology, the propositions presented herein have gone through several revisions since the original field propositions. The following propositions represent Central High School, but they also may be partially generalizable beyond the specific school to other schools having similar characteristics.

An important consideration that must be kept in mind is the original organizing scheme used in analyzing the school. The methodology called for the use of an interview schedule which established three major categories: organizational structure, administrative processes, and administrative behavior. The propositions presented in this chapter follow the same pattern and deal with the organizational structure, administrative processes, and administrative behavior in Central High School.

## Organizational Structure

Four propositions were derived relating to the school organization. The first proposition dealt with the various levels of

administration. The second proposition dealt with the role expectations of the various levels of administration. The third proposition dealt with the departmental structure of the organization. The fourth proposition dealt with the new managerial role of instructional supervisors.

#### Proposition One--Level of Administration

A viable organizational scheme for the operation of a secondary school can create various levels of administration. For example, there can be a top-level administration team, a middle-level duty-specific team, and new roles whereby traditional department chairpersons become a part of the management team. If this kind of organization is developed, then the organizational operation should utilize the talents of the newly expanded managerial team and communication between and among the various levels of management should be precise, regular, and multilateral.

At Central High School, there were three distinct levels of administrative organization. These levels performed different functions. At the top, there was the principal and the associate principal. Each of these people functioned as generalists. They were the leaders of the school and they were expected to carry out the overall leadership functions for the entire school. The superintendent of the district in which Central High School is located specifically planned this form of organization. Dr. Smith, the superintendent, said:

When I became superintendent, I determined that the second in command for the district had to be the principals. I wanted them to be strong instructional leaders. I eliminated assistant superintendents and placed the principals in the strong leadership positions.

The associate principalship was also created to be a leader of the school. Dr. Smith originally created two associate principalships with authority to deal with supervision and personnel. When an associate principalship position was dropped, however, the duties of both were incorporated into those of the one remaining associate principal who was supposed to function as a generalist.

The top-level administrative organization can function smoothly if the two leaders complement each other. One problem with the organizational structure at Central High School was the inability of the co-leaders to establish complementary role relationships. This lack of complementarity placed the associate principal, Mr. Brown, in an anomalous position. As one instructional supervisor said,

When Mr. Jones and Mr. Brown communicate, everything runs smoothly, but what often happens is Mr. Jones does not always communicate clearly with Mr. Brown. For example, at the beginning of the school year, we received two different letters concerning the opening of the school year from each of them and the letters contradicted each other!

The second level of management called for the creation of a series of coordinators with specific responsibilities. These included an administrative assistant (nominally a part of the administrative team but with a duty-specific role dealing with

scheduling, the secretaries, and buildings and grounds), a coordinator of student activities, a dean and an associate dean of students, a coordinator of guidance, an athletic director, and a coordinator of the Instructional Materials Center.

The unique feature of the organizational structure of Central High School was the third level of management whereby the traditional departmental chairperson had been elevated to the position of instructional supervisor. This position evolved from that of the traditional departmental chairperson. In the new position, the instructional supervisor's duties were expanded. One instructional supervisor said,

Our responsibilities were expanded. We are now supervisors of equipment and teachers. We assign schedules and deal with student discipline in our area. We hire and fire and evaluate teachers in our area.

This structure was designed to allow for grassroots supervision by knowledgeable people in a specific subject field. For example, inservice for departments could be issue-specific to that department and could provide modeling among teachers in a department. The superintendent, Dr. Smith, described this role by saying, "The instructional supervisors can hire, evaluate, recommend teacher dismissals, recommend half-step salary freezes, manage the department, and determine budget uses."

From the staff point of view, instructional supervisors were their leaders. One instructional supervisor said,



The instructional supervisor serves as a buffer between the top administrators and the teacher. We hear their complaints. We handle their needs. We sort of "soft-pedal" the harsh issues of the system.

Instructional supervisors were considered effective at Central High School in terms of being able to keep the school running.

One person said,

They are the leaders in their subject fields and the unsung heroes of the school for keeping it going on a day-to-day level.

All people in the three levels met nominally as an administrative council where decisions were discussed and consensus was to be reached. One coordinator reported, however, that the structure operated as follows:

Very little happens at administrative council meetings. Few issues or problems of real significance are ever brought up. For instance, at our last council meeting we discussed whether to use one or two commendation forms for student excellence and the solution was "we will have to decide."

A coordinator said,

We have a strong instructional supervisor core here, but there are weaknesses, too, in that they feel they are really not involved in the decision-making process. All they really are is the vehicle for passing the word on from the administration to the staff. There really is no one for them to turn to and gain any leadership in terms of curriculum. At one time, these supervisors dealt with a district curriculum coordinator who provided an exciting challenge, but then she died and no one ever filled her role. Now no one deals with curriculum.

A teacher said,

The instructional supervisors are good for communicating administrative policies and board decisions to

teachers, but they are no good for facilitating teaching, evaluating instruction, and developing curriculum.

Another teacher said,

When they went from department chairperson to instructional supervisor, their job was "watered down" and they became a part of the management team. Originally, they were educational leaders and developed curriculum and supported their staff. They had power. Now, they are a line position designed to supervise, do paperwork, and try to please the administration. Their ability to represent teachers has been effectively curbed.

#### Proposition Two--Role Expectations of the Three Levels

Schools with several levels of administration should clearly define the role expectations for all levels of the administrative team.

At Central High School, some problems existed concerning who could or could not do a particular task, who was responsible for a particular task, and who had the right and obligation to provide leadership and input to the decision-making process. Within the school there was confusion about who should provide leadership to the decision-making process. To illustrate this point, one of the coordinators said,

At Central High School, the associate principal does most of the things that Mr. Jones doesn't like to do, such as anything offensive to anyone, strong control of anything, discipline, and evaluations.

As a result of the confusion over roles, each person in the organization built his or her own base of power and guarded against doing anything which might threaten that base of power. For example,

a coordinator said,

Look, my position has more power hidden in it than do the other coordinators. The principal needs me to keep the lid on this place.

Another coordinator said,

Most instructional supervisors are very strong, and each has his own little kingdom. As a result, the administration hears only what the instructional supervisors want them to hear.

As Mr. Jones said,

The instructional supervisors protect their teachers and fulfill that role.

Further, another administrator said,

The instructional supervisor structure allows departments to run themselves with their own strong teachers. The instructional supervisors ran things while five principals came through Central High School.

Despite the foregoing statements, there was some ambiguity about the role of instructional supervisors. One instructional supervisor said,

Being a part of management rather than a departmental chairperson defines my role better and leads to less self-role conflict. However, the instructional supervisor is still the man-in-the middle between the staff and the administration.

Another instructional supervisor pointed out the ambiguity when she said,

In reality there is a lot of power in certain pockets. There is a lot of influence in the instructional supervisor role, but only a few use it and they have influence with the principal.

A teacher of long tenure summed up the issue when he said,

Certain instructional supervisors are very powerful people. Certain teachers have a personal relationship with the principal and are therefore very powerful. Generally, though, the instructional supervisors don't speak out on issues. They only say what the administration wants to hear in order to ingratiate themselves.

The role of the instructional supervisor was ambiguous.

One teacher said,

I assume the instructional supervisors are a part of the administration. They are one of the 56 we have. They pass out dates, deadlines, and other business matters of the school.

Yet, an instructional supervisor said,

I do not consider myself an administrator. Instructional supervisors do not make decisions. Administrators make decisions as to what the school is to do or where it is going.

The confusion over the role of the instructional supervisor was a source of irritation to the staff. Questions concerning curricular leadership and instructional leadership (traditional roles assumed by departmental chairpersons) were not clearly settled. Instructional supervisors said,

The effectiveness of an instructional supervisor comes in assuring that the best teaching possible is going on in the classrooms of the department.

Our role is now administrative and managerial. In fact, I was told during one of my evaluations that I was too teacher oriented and was not interested enough in doing the administrative details.

For the teaching staff, this issue was acute. While some teachers went to their instructional supervisors for solutions to



problems, others did not see their instructional supervisors as instructional leaders. Experienced teachers remarked,

The department chair was a master teacher who did some administrative work, but the instructional supervisor is an administrator who teaches some classes.

The instructional supervisors are not giving the teachers a "fair shake." They are evaluated in terms of how they can defuse touchy academic problems and keep them from becoming administrative problems.

#### Proposition Three--The Departmental Structure

Schools that are organized into strong departmental units can become departmentally isolated, curricularly fragmented, and have unclear vertical and horizontal communication.

Central High School was highly departmentalized. Indeed, the staff, as in other schools, saw departmental expertise as a real strength. How to utilize that strength in constructive and innovative ways was an issue. At Central High School the departments had developed strong territorial claims to power. A parent said, "The school is 'shot through' with politics, pettiness, and competition between the departments." Another parent commented, "Each person jealously guards his/her own turf. The departments are separate enclaves with real power focused in them."

Coordinated curricular efforts typically have little chance to succeed in such situations. Central High School had recently undergone an evaluation by the regional accrediting association. One of the recommendations of the accrediting team was that the

school needed to develop a comprehensive educational program with clear objectives established and shared by all departments and that interdisciplinary efforts could and ought to begin. That recommendation had not been acted on. As one teacher said,

Departments are very segregated in this school. There is tremendous rivalry between the departments. There is no discussion cross-departmentally and if there is a coherent curriculum philosophy, I couldn't tell you what it is.

Additionally, a student said,

Every department and activity is separate, so there is no coordinated approach to life for Central High students.

The instructional supervisors should provide leadership to counter such trends. They are the curricular experts who ought to understand the need for schoolwide cooperation. Instead, staff perceptions of instructional supervisors were the opposite. One teacher described her instructional supervisor as being very effective at thinking up new ways to attract students to her department but not very effective in terms of knowledge of the total instructional program or creating any overall curriculum philosophy.

Another teacher said,

We are often told by our instructional supervisor, "Don't do certain things because it will get me in trouble." Now, we don't know whether to blame him or some "God on high."

Faculty members described how information, policy, and procedures were handled differently in the several departments. Consequently, the feeling was that the way to survive was to "do your

own little thing in your own little world" and not question those above you. A teacher said, "I just manage to stay one step ahead of them and keep dodging so they never catch me." Regarding fragmentation respondents said,

Every department is its own little world, each in its own orbit. Each department is a closed circle and teachers share only with their departmental colleagues. They are afraid of interdisciplinary courses because of fear of loss of control. The administration discourages the necessary groundwork to prepare for innovation and for interdepartmental cooperation, so it never works. Teachers are so caught up in their own little job that the administration would have to take the initiative to seek them out.

It would take a strong and powerful administration to deal with the situation. Unfortunately, the current administration tries to defuse each problem and dissect it so no change occurs and the problem continues.

#### Proposition Four--New Managerial Roles

When traditional departmental chairpersons are elevated to managerial roles as a part of the administrative team, then the selection, training, and continued inservice of those individuals should reflect the new role expectations. Additionally, the evaluation of the individuals should be based on the objectives of the school's instructional program.

At Central High School an important question concerned that of who was chosen to be an instructional supervisor in the first place. Additional issues concerned what they were to do in their new role, how they were prepared to fulfill that role, and how they were evaluated. Issues which emerged were whether or not the

evaluative management by objectives (MBO) system for the instructional supervisors was related to the instructional program and whether or not the MBOs were based on personalistic and political factors rather than role effectiveness.

Typically the traditional departmental chairperson is selected because that person is an excellent teacher, can deal with varying individual teacher styles, can encourage curricular creativity, and can represent the particular interests of his or her departmental staff. At Central High School, the department heads were moved from the teaching ranks to the administrative team. In this new role, instructional supervisors were given a number of new role expectations including selecting and evaluating teachers, maintaining departmental budgets, handling minor disciplinary decisions, and acting as the direct administrative contact for the staff.

The issue at Central High School concerned whether or not those people chosen as instructional supervisors possessed the necessary skills to fulfill the new role responsibilities. The same selection process as that previously used to select departmental chairpersons was seen as still in place. Teachers said,

The instructional supervisor position is usually filled by a person with outstanding teaching ability or expertise in the field.

People are put in instructional supervisor positions who aren't trained in management and don't understand about such things as communication and motivation. They treat teachers like kids in a classroom and



problems result. The school and the district administrators should be hiring differently, or at least sponsoring management training in order to have an effective administration.

Confusion about the role of instructional supervisors was a major issue. This confusion appeared to flow from the selection process and the lack of understanding about what instructional supervisors were supposed to do. Were they management or were they teachers? Were they to represent their departments or the administration? An instructional supervisor with many years of experience said,

There has never been any organization of the instructional supervisors. We have never clearly understood our role or understood how to fulfill our role. By default, we make many administrative decisions, but we are never sure whether we should be making such decisions. We make curricular decisions because no one else seems willing to do it.

Teachers did not hold clear role expectations for their instructional supervisors. Several experienced teachers said,

By being a part of management rather than a part of the teaching staff, the instructional supervisors become "yes men." They aren't seen as teachers. They rarely consult with teachers. They assign us our tasks, but seldom check to see we do it.

The instructional supervisors are out of touch with the classroom and need to be put back in touch with teaching and learning.

Despite this role ambiguity, teachers were expected to follow the chain of command and go to their instructional supervisors to seek solutions to problems. Sometimes, with the support of the instructional supervisor, teachers went to the counselor or the dean.

Teachers rarely went beyond this level. If supervisors are perceived as effective, then the chain of command works. At Central High School, teachers were expected to go to their instructional supervisors, and yet one teacher said,

Instructional supervisors are now separate from the staff rather than close to their teachers as they were when they were departmental chairpersons. As management, they have lost touch with their departments because they are now seen as a threat instead of as a member of their departmental staff.

Another teacher said,

The instructional supervisor must be involved in teaching if the structure is going to work. An instructional supervisor is an administrator above all else, and it doesn't matter if the instructional supervisor can teach well or not. The structure is such that a successful instructional supervisor is not teacher oriented, but rather a spokesman for the administration. That is all backwards!

The major issues surrounding instructional supervisors dealt with the role perceptions held by the upper echelon administrators, the instructional supervisors themselves, and the teachers. There was little inservice conducted to define the expectations and effectiveness of the instructional supervisor's role. This role ambiguity was apparent regarding the procedures used to evaluate instructional supervisors.

Central High School used a management by objectives (MBO) system for evaluating the administrative staff, including instructional supervisors. The issue was whether the MBOs reflected sound instructional needs or whether they were personalistic and political

evaluations. Different instructional supervisors said,

I look upon the MBO as the way we happen to get evaluated. I have to make up exercises that I have to go through and do, but they don't affect my department very much. We dream up objectives that are an exercise in futility.

Here we are, twelve weeks into the school year and the administration has yet to respond to my written MBOs. You tell me how important they are.

Our evaluations are subjective. Everyone knows it, but I couldn't prove it.

Teachers knew about the MBO issue with instructional supervisors and saw the evaluative processes as a negative factor.

Teachers remarked:

There have been many instances where instructional supervisors because of their position and the philosophy of accountability and MBOs make decisions to improve efficiency and contribute to a smooth running operation rather than to contribute to sound learning principles.

The departmental chairpersons had more power in terms of talking with the principal because they were not afraid of losing their jobs. They had tenure in the bargaining unit as a teacher. An instructional supervisor can lose his entire job with the district. The department chairpersons stuck together more as a group and talked freely with the principal. The instructional supervisors are afraid to speak up for fear of a bad evaluation, and they do not communicate with one another. The departmental chairpersons were evaluated by the members of their department which fostered honest relationships with the department. That is not the case now.

### Administrative Processes

The administrative organization functions by utilizing various administrative processes. Five propositions emerged relating to the administrative processes. The first concerned the curriculum philosophy of a comprehensive high school. The second concerned balance of the curriculum. The third related to curricular planning processes. The fourth related to efforts to individualize the school's curriculum. The fifth related to structures for shared decision making.

#### Proposition Five--Schoolwide Curricular Philosophy

Schools must develop a schoolwide curriculum philosophy to have a consistent and obtainable set of goals relevant to the needs of the students and the abilities of the professional staff.

Several issues emerged at Central High School surrounding this proposition. The primary issue was the decision-making process used to develop any particular curricular offering. Questions about input from all members of the community, including parents, students, teachers, and administrators, were a major concern. Questions about the relationship of curricular offerings to a consistent curricular philosophy were identified. Questions about the relationship of teaching to the curriculum philosophy also was a concern. Additionally, the effectiveness of a written curriculum philosophy was a major concern.



The school had a written curriculum philosophy, but few were aware of it and apparently very few consulted the philosophy. Although the curriculum philosophy at the school included an emphasis on academic and vocational programs, extracurricular activities were particularly emphasized.

The question of an overall philosophy was a major concern. One instructional supervisor said,

There is an all-school philosophy written down in global terms, but there really is no single central thread pulling the departments all together. The departments individually have the most power over their curriculum philosophy, but there is no central framework for the school's curriculum.

A schoolwide philosophy was developed by a committee to meet the requirements for the evaluation by the regional accrediting association. Respondents commented about the school's statement of philosophy as follows:

Certainly the central administration and the Board of Education wanted a philosophy which would become the foundation for all that is done in the school. I never experienced such interest by policy-making bodies in a word-by-word review of the curriculum philosophy which was to be submitted to the accreditation association.

I know there are some school goal statements, but they are not followed. Every department just kind of does its own thing.

There is no coherent curriculum philosophy for the school, but there is one for our department which was written seven years ago.

We set up our objectives on our own at the course level. There is no structure to see what is going on in the rest of the curriculum.

People at Central High School can't even explain the differences between honors courses and regular courses because there is no curriculum philosophy or guide.

Organizationally, the responsibility for the curriculum was with the principal and instructional supervisors. Regarding operational curriculum at the departmental level, teachers said,

There is a curriculum philosophy in each department and it is available if you want to read it.

Teachers don't know their department objectives even though they all have copies and their courses are supposed to be objective based.

I can't think of a specific departmental meeting where we even discussed philosophy. Departmental meetings often are more gripe sessions to vent your feelings about something you know nothing can be done about, but at least you feel you have had your say.

Individual departments did not develop their curriculum philosophy. Teachers remarked,

I would like my peers to know what I do all day and would really like to know what they do. I thought of an institute devoted to a sharing session among the faculty, but nothing ever came of my idea once I submitted it.

There is no cross-departmental contact. For two years I wanted to teach in cooperation with a teacher in another department. I was told, "You don't want to open that can of worms, do you?"

Since individual departments did not develop a curriculum philosophy, the ultimate reason seen was the lack of leadership. Respondents said,

Central High School is really lacking any curriculum leadership and that's what the school is here for.

We never know who is responsible for curriculum on an administrative level. At one time it was Mr. Jones, then it was an associate principal who is no longer here, and now I think it's Mr. Brown. Basically, curriculum falls on the individual teacher around here.

Proposition 6--Balance of the School's Program

In a comprehensive high school the curriculum philosophy should give appropriate emphasis to academic, vocational, and extra-curricular activities.

Although Central High School was comprehensive, the emphasis placed on extracurricular activities was greater than the emphasis placed on either academic or vocational programs. Moreover, the emphasis on academics for top-level students was greater than that on vocational programs for non-college-bound students. The reasons for this situation related to the emphasis desired by the administrators and the community. Community expectations placed the leadership in a tenuous situation with delicate political concerns. The end result was an uneven program effort.

Most respondents were proud of the extracurricular programs of the school. The community vigorously supported such extracurricular activities as music, debate, speech, drama, and athletics. Additionally, a healthy school spirit derived from success in extracurricular activities.

The principal was very proud of the extracurricular activities program. He often visited the student activities center and was very proud of the new Center for the Fine Arts. Students

remarked,

Mr. Jones brags about the activities program all the time and thinks it's very impressive.

One real strength of Central High is its activities program. There is something for everyone here.

The strength of the activities program was recognized by many respondents. Parents said,

Certainly, there is a very strong extracurricular program at Central High. Students have a lot of school spirit.

The music department has superior instruction and award winning bands, orchestra, and choral groups.

Others said,

Of course Central's greatest strength is its athletics and activities program, but that has less to do with the school than with the community. The affluence of the community means many students come to Central High with highly developed skills through having had private lessons.

It's easy to have winners here. The community provides plenty of resources for our program, and the students come from homes where support for the arts has been available.

The principal's support of the activities program was evidenced by the following comments by the staff:

There is not enough emphasis on academics at Central High compared to the visible aspects of the school such as athletics, plays, the band, and others. The principal should communicate more satisfaction with the school's academics. The teachers need more strokes from the principal.

There is some imbalance in the emphasis placed on extracurricular activities. Teachers complain constantly about the loss of class time and see the principal as the prime supporter of the activities program.



Activities are considered very important here. Student attention is diverted from classes and refocused on school activities. Attention is given to homecoming week, holiday week, and spring festival week, but little attention is paid to homework.

There was considerable staff feeling that Central High School served the needs of its academically talented students. Respondents said,

Our philosophy is to be the toughest, hardest college prep school we can be.

Students are well prepared for college because of all of the good electives and course offerings.

Central High School certainly prepared my daughters for college. The curriculum and the staff is open to students, and everything a student would want is there if the child will seek it out.

Even so, there were concerns that overemphasis on the college-bound student was a problem. Observations were as follows:

Our curriculum does not serve every student. We do well for the college bound, but not the others.

The large mass of average students is basically ignored because "the squeaky wheel [the top student] gets the grease." The curriculum has too many watered-down courses instead of concentrated solid courses with lots of sections to fit the students' schedules.

We think what we offer is what we need to offer because we send 84 percent of our students to college. But the fact of the matter is that a large segment of these students never finish college and therefore are not prepared for anything by our curriculum.

Central High School is not providing for the 14 percent of the non-college-bound students and the 50 percent who never finish college. Kids are not encouraged to take vocational courses because of pressure from the community to send their kids to college.

Our accreditation report criticized our shop areas and their physical facilities. Notice we spent a lot of money recently, and none down in the vocational education wing.

Another issue at the school concerned the use of resources. Priorities at the district level favored increasing the college entrance examination scores, while the priorities at the building level favored a wide extracurricular activities program. District administrators had been told to devise means for the academic testing of the students and then to raise the scores. The high schools in the district were tested and compared, and Central High was reported to have the lowest scores. This issue had become very important and the staff was also told to raise the scores. Even so, the principal said, "The big issues in education now are minimum competencies and declining test scores. All of that is really boring to me."

The affluence of the community and the upward mobility of its residents placed pressure on the school to get the students into the best colleges. The community liked the high visibility successes of Central High students in extracurricular activities and thus encouraged expenditures for such programs. Since the community did not understand the needs of all students, the curriculum was uneven. An experienced teacher said,

Our curriculum is not the very best. It still aims at a populace we don't have anymore. No one is telling the community our students are now different. We push them toward a higher level than many students

can handle. We refuse to develop programs for the noncollege student. That is a disservice to the student.

A parent similarly stated,

The school wants to be like the top prep schools and offers a diverse number of courses, but many are not taught well and students are not educated for living. Those students who don't want to go to college are ignored.

A student said,

The curriculum has honors and advanced placement courses with good teachers for the top student, but teachers of lower level courses just go through the motions and aren't really interested.

An administrator said,

What we need is to revise what we do and reestablish the purposes of our curriculum. The accrediting team pointed out that need but also pointed out the staff apathy and unwillingness to go beyond their 8:00 to 3:00 day. It's disheartening.

#### Proposition Seven--Curricular Planning

Schools should develop curricular planning processes that are implemental and efficient. These processes should also encourage creativity and innovation.

At Central High School, a curriculum planning process had been outlined to provide for wide involvement by all concerned parties. The superintendent described this process as follows:

Anything dealing with money, space, or people must go through the curriculum planning process. It was designed to foster imagination and creativity in curriculum development from staff, students, and parents. Each department has a committee made up

of staff, students, and parents. An individual brings an idea to that committee where the committee helps develop a curriculum plan. The plan is then taken to the instructional supervisors who must pass on it. Then the plan goes to the principal, then to the superintendent, and finally the board of education. At critical decision points a curricular plan can be killed. The instructional supervisors can kill it and the principal can kill it. Theoretically, I could kill it, but if a curriculum plan had the approval of the instructional supervisors and the principal, I would never oppose it.

Although the curriculum planning process provided the means for future curricular change, the process was not followed consistently. An instructional supervisor said,

The planning process differs in method depending on the department. Some departments do develop the whole process, some use their whole department in order to decide about a course to be proposed, and some merely involve the person with the idea and the instructional supervisor.

Substantial differences in perception existed concerning the curriculum planning process. The superintendent stated that all matters dealing with money, space, or people used the curriculum planning process, and that at the lowest level, parents and students were to be involved. The principal agreed, saying, "Parents have to be involved with the curriculum planning process at the departmental level." When asked what the curriculum planning process was to handle, the principal said, "It deals with new courses."

Administrators insisted that teachers were involved in the curriculum planning process. Over half of the teachers in one large department, however, did not know what it was. One teacher said,



"What is it? I don't know anything about it." Another teacher thought the curriculum planning process had something to do with making lesson plans. Still another teacher said, "The curriculum planning process is a joke. The courses sometimes just appear without communication with the department."

Use of the curriculum planning process was political. A teacher with long tenure said,

The curriculum planning process is not effective because it is only a formality which is expedient for the administration to let others do all of the work. Really, there are no administrators who understand the proposals or want to take the time to investigate them. It becomes more of a stumbling block than a facilitator of innovation, because an idea is just presented with very little discussion before it is accepted or rejected. Additionally, current courses aren't reviewed at any time.

Central High School had a process ideally designed to involve people at all levels in curriculum planning and creative change. Actually, the process was perceived as somewhat political and unevenly implemented.

#### Proposition Eight--Efforts to Individualize a School's Program

Schools that provide individualized education must consider individual learner modality and individual teacher style, and then match those, based on systematic procedures which maximize learner effectiveness and efficiency.

Individualized learning has been debated in schools for some time. All agree with the concept of individualization which assumes

that each individual possesses unique needs, interests, and abilities. At issue is how a school should be organized for individualized teaching and learning. Several questions should be answered: (1) Will the school allow self-pacing by the student or diagnosed pacing determined by both the teacher and student? (2) Will the curricular choice be decided by the student or will there be a structured direction with specific requirements for all students? (3) Will the curriculum provide career-oriented courses as well as college-oriented courses? (4) Is the guidance program structured so that counselors work closely with the teaching staff in determining the continuous progress of each student? (5) Is a continuous staff development program provided to help identify teaching style, provide processes to utilize each teaching style most effectively, and constantly inform teachers about the proper procedures needed to serve each student?

Central High School initiated an individualized learning program several years ago. The principal possessed expertise in individualized learning programs. Extensive planning was begun to individualize the educational program at Central High School. Through a series of steps, the school reached the point where approximately 55 percent of its curricular offerings were on an individualized basis.

The individualized learning curriculum at Central High School contained the following ingredients:

1. Specified purposes and objectives for each course.
2. Comprehensive course evaluations designed to measure the degree of achievement of each course objective.
3. Required demonstration of mastery of each course objective.
4. Continuous progress through course objectives.
5. Variety of resources and activities which the student could utilize in order to achieve objectives.
6. Written prescriptive statements labeled contracts which contain the purposes, objectives, suggested resources and activities for achieving the objectives and statements related to the means by which the student would be required to give evidence of mastery of objectives.

Problems with the individualized learning program were that pretesting took place irregularly and not in every course, alternative objectives were not systematically developed to meet each student's needs, and not all departments developed individualized learning programs. Only the method of teaching was changed, and not the schedule or the required courses. Finally, record keeping of student progress was done entirely by individual teachers. The guidance department was not involved in checking the continuous progress and no other means was developed to aid the individual teacher in monitoring student progress. Without an adequate monitoring system, students simply did not complete their course work. One teacher said,

The greatest weakness of the individualized learning program was the absence of any grade deadline and the absence of any way to keep track of the progress of the students. Students just let work slide and therefore received incompletes. Provisions for diagnosing

student progress and student needs did not exist, so many students ended up with incompletes.

Continuous progress was never implemented at Central High School. Continuous progress provides an individualized learning program whereby each student progresses at his or her own rate. As the student finishes one segment, he or she may move on to the next. Additionally, in high schools, a student may complete a course early and move on into the next course in the sequence or may enroll in another course (Klausmeier & Daresh, 1979). At Central High School, the students could progress through at their own pace, but one instructional supervisor said,

The completers did not have another course to move on to, so they wandered the halls. Courses were semester-length with no flexible scheduling. That also meant there was no course for those who did not complete a course to return to.

Many of the above problems were recognized. The principal made some effort to establish administrative processes to correct the problems, but he put the major blame for the problems on the students. He said,

Many students have been unwilling to accept the responsibility required of them in order that they could function successfully in the program. As a result, they have procrastinated.

Any major educational change requires specific procedures to be successfully initiated, implemented, evaluated, modified, and reevaluated. At Central, the failure to follow through from initiation through modification and reevaluation led to a community



uprising against the program wherein many parents came to a board meeting to present their objections. Community concerns centered around the following questions: Had the merits of traditional education been overlooked? Had the administration of the traditional educational program received the same priority as the individualized learning program? Had the community been adequately involved and informed about the adoption of the experimental program? Should there be a restriction of the program until some screening system for student selection could be devised? Did the individualized learning program create a discipline problem at the school? And, had the morale of the teaching staff been undermined by the complexities and constantly shifting individualized learning program?

As a result the superintendent required certain changes and modifications to be made. At the time of this study, enrollments in the individualized learning program dropped to 7 percent. Although it was claimed that all courses were offered on an individualized learning basis, few students actually participated in the program.

What happened to the individualized learning program? What was done to correct the problems identified? What were the lasting results for the school? Respondents addressed these questions as follows:

The individualized learning concept was good, but it was woefully misused because it became a status symbol among the administration, teachers, and parents that the school and their children were zipping along in an individualized course. The school forced many kids into individualized learning classes who should have been in traditional classes. The results were predictable.

We have never faced the reality of why the program of individualized learning failed. We didn't know who belonged in the program then and we don't know why some failed and others didn't now. Mr. Jones was exposed to the failures, but he believed then and still believes that the successes outweighed the failures.

I don't think there are very many who can work without deadlines. Many students and parents looked on individualized learning classes as a course where the teacher didn't have to work.

The individual learning efforts and faculty meetings certainly helped us think through our philosophy and look at our curriculum. We rewrote all of our curriculum to comply with performance objectives. That still remains in place.

While the individualized learning as a program is dead, we have adopted the best of the individual learning techniques into our traditional program.

Because of individualized learning, a student now knows what to expect at the beginning of every course and knows exactly what he or she must do in order to complete the course.

#### Proposition Nine--Shared Decision Making

Schools that develop decision-making structures which include staff, student, and parent advisory forums should utilize the input from the groups in the decision-making process.

Schools have been criticized for their bureaucratic structure and have been urged to open their decision-making processes to provide for broad participation by those affected by the decisions made. Indeed, advisory groups are mandatory for participation in some federal programs. Central had established several advisory groups. The administration met with these groups and sought their advice and participation when making decisions. The three major groups included the faculty advisory council, the student advisory board and the student association, and the parents' advisory council. Each group was established to provide opportunities to have a direct line of communication with the administration and to provide a forum whereby ideas, attitudes, and suggestions for solving problems could be presented for consideration. The administration also assumed these three groups would provide input from teachers, students, and parents.

The faculty advisory council originated from efforts of teachers. Regarding the council, teachers observed:

When the faculty advisory council was first organized by the staff years ago, it was a curriculum committee. There was an elected representative from every department in order to have schoolwide representation. The faculty directed the meetings and organized them in order to discuss educational issues such as new programs for various departments and the grading system. At faculty request, the administration was asked to sit in on the meetings to hear the staff discussions and to provide feedback. Now, however, the faculty advisory council is run by the administration, and it has become a useless "bitch and gripe" session.

I served on the council for three years. It is a fiasco. No real problems of any substance are ever presented. No answer is ever given when something is brought up. We will get answers from the administration like "Well, we can't deal with that in five minutes"; or, "We need to prepare an answer"; or, "We will work on that." Nothing ever happens.

I know the council members are selected from the staff, but I have never heard of anything coming from those meetings.

There is little involvement by the teachers in the decision making. The lines of communication with the administration don't exist. We each just do our own thing.

Questions like hall duty and teacher load are decided without our voice being heard. We only know what is going on in the building through rumor.

The principal recognized these negative feelings when he said, "Many people on our staff are unhappy and frustrated with their jobs, and yet the pay is so good here that it's hard to leave and take a pay cut."

The lack of involvement of the faculty advisory council and teachers in the decision-making process affected communication within the school. Teachers said,

The administration and staff communication is very poor, resulting in very little coordination and consistency in the school.

The Central High School atmosphere used to be "one big happy family," but now the faculty and the administration are segregated and don't mix.

There is very little effort to give teachers a sense of recognition and belonging at Central High. Teachers need some sort of corporate identity accomplished through social events and involvement. As it is now, teachers are like individual contractors



who each come separately to the school, teach for the day, and then go home. The administration is constantly asking teachers to come to school events and show interest in the students, but the administration never thinks of showing interest in the teachers.

Two groups were designed to represent student viewpoints. One, the student advisory board, was an organization designed to establish lines of communication between students and the administration. Any student with unscheduled free time could come to the meetings with the principal and other administrators. The other group, the student association, was an elected body and worked with the coordinator of student activities to develop, conduct, and evaluate student social events. Questions about the effectiveness of the student groups in representing student opinions and in being heard by the administration were raised by many members of the school community. Mr. Jones said,

Students? If you ask me if there are efforts made to involve students in the decision-making process--yes. Effective? No! We have a student association and a student advisory board, but neither group really represents the students or speaks to major issues.

Students said,

The student association really doesn't have any pull with the administration. They generally have their minds made up by the time they come to see the students. Like last year the administration did away with the communication room [like a homeroom]. When we protested it did no good.

My junior high school was more receptive to student government than Central High is.

Mr. Jones meets with a group of students the last period of the day. It generally meets once every two weeks. Nothing really ever comes out of these meetings.

At one of these meetings an issue emerged and a decision was made. The administration was concerned with student conduct in the student activities hall. If a student did not have class, the student could go to this hall or other areas during certain periods of the day. It was the administration's viewpoint that the hall should be closed because of poor student conduct. Many students objected and suggested other alternatives, but the impression given was that the hall would be closed and that it was the students' fault.

The results within the school were observable, as the following responses indicate:

There is an inner anger here among the students that is hard to cope with. They have everything they ever wanted, but they dislike this place. They will tear up anything.

Vandalism has been a problem here at Central High.

The atmosphere at Central High is not conducive to promoting self-discipline and training kids to handle themselves.

Most students don't do anything if they have a concern because they doubt that anything will happen if they complain.

Even so, the principal truly appeared to care about students and what they thought. He helped certain students get accepted into college. He attended many student activities and events. He knew many students by name. Students who knew him perceived him as

being a student advocate. Even though there was genuine concern with student welfare, students, as in many secondary schools, were not widely involved in the decision-making process.

The parent advisory council (PAC) met monthly. The principal attended all of these meetings, and often requested other administrators to attend and help answer questions generated. Parents were informed of meeting dates and meeting topics by letter from the principal. Additionally, at the beginning of each school year, parents received considerable information concerning the school calendar and school events.

Parental comments about the parent advisory council varied. They said,

PAC meetings are used to let parents "blow off steam" about the school issues bothering them. However, nothing is ever done because of what is said at a PAC meeting.

The PAC airs parental concerns and the administration listens, but the administration only acts if several influential citizens want something. The administration is immune to the concerns of the average parent.

Parents remain interested in Central High even after their kids have left high school.

Kids don't want parents to attend meetings. The fact is if a kid doesn't have a problem with the school or is not engaged in an activity, then the parents aren't really informed about the school and simply believe what is printed and think everything is just grand.

At one parent advisory council meeting designed to examine the guidance program, approximately 200 parents listened to a

presentation by the administrator in charge of guidance. Afterward, parents raised questions. Some parents were concerned because some teachers would not allow students out of class to meet with college representatives. Some wanted to know about the dates for the various college admission tests. Others were critical of the student load of each guidance counselor and wondered why the school did not have a teacher advisor program. The administrators answered the parents' questions only indirectly. Regarding the testing date, the answer was, "We give plenty of notice about tests and if students don't get to the test, that is not our fault." Regarding the load of counselors, the principal asked, "What kind of guidance would a teacher advisor system offer? If you think that is such a good system, go to the board and demand they pay for it."

Instead of using the parent advisory council, parents who had concerns called the principal, the superintendent, or board members directly. Parents who used these means appeared to get results. Regarding this issue, teachers commented,

My instructional supervisor had told us that the word from on high is if a parent calls, the teacher is to make that their first priority during the day.

The school is afraid of parents and consequently a few phone calls on any subject by influential people will make the administration reverse its rules and policies.

The principal listens carefully to individual parents. As professional people, our parents don't come with hat in hand to the school, but demand things and threaten legal action if they don't get it, and the administration will respond.



Central High School had established structures to involve teachers, students, and parents in decision making. The three groups, however, were not perceived as providing substantial or widespread input to the decision-making processes. Individuals, however, were able to exert influence over decisions.

#### Administrative Behavior

Administrative behavior emerged as an important consideration. The proposition that emerged dealt with role expectations of the top-level administrators, behavioral patterns appropriate for the role, and administrative skills necessary to fulfill the role.

#### Proposition Ten--Administrative Role Behavior

To be successful, administrators must exhibit skills and behavioral patterns which will fulfill the positional leadership role expectations held by staff, students, parents, and others.

There are positional role expectations for all levels of a school administration with very specific expectations for top-level administrators. Typical expectations of top-level administrators include visibility, access to members of the system, instructional leadership, consideration and support for members of the system, acceptance of constructive criticism, and resolving system problems. The administrator must pay attention to behavioral patterns he or she exhibits and to the perceptions of his or her behavior patterns if he or she is to utilize his or her administrative skills. The

administrative functions can be successfully completed only when the behavior patterns fulfill the positional role expectations.

Respondents' perceptions about the leadership behavior of the principal and associate principal regarding visibility, accessibility, instructional leadership, supportiveness, response to criticism, and problem-solving behavior are first summarized. Then, respondents' perceptions concerning the superintendent's leadership behavior are summarized as they relate to the daily operation of the school.

Regarding the visibility of the principal, teachers stated:

Mr. Jones is pleasant when you see him, but he is not very visible. I have only seen him near my teaching area twice this year. He tells the staff to mingle more with each other and with students, to create a family atmosphere, but he tells us this through a memo and doesn't do this himself. He won't even have a cup of coffee in the lunch room in order to see the staff.

Mr. Jones is not out in the building enough to know what is going on. He relies on a few people in the building to give him information about what is going on.

Teachers need greater visibility of the principal. Very seldom do classroom teachers see him around in the classrooms.

The principal was perceived to be visible in certain areas. Students reported that if a student were involved with activities, he or she could see the principal at any time. A parent said, "Mr. Jones is 'gung ho' Central High and is always at the student activities events." Teachers concurred, saying, "What seems to

have happened is the principal has simply assumed that public relations is his major role."

Staff members were specific in suggesting what the principal should do to be visible throughout the school. An administrator said, "Normally the principal is out in front of the school, leading the school, but not here." A veteran teacher said, "By not being seen the principal fails to build up staff confidence in his leadership ability." Another teacher said, "He needs to spend time in various programs and departments instead of spending as much time in his office." Another teacher suggested, "If I were the principal, I would get out and know the people in all of the departments and know their needs."

A related concern was the question of access to the principal. Some felt that it was very difficult for certain staff members to see the principal, yet it was very easy for others. One respondent said,

I would go see Jones on very few issues. I have been here throughout his tenure as principal, but have been in his office very few times. When you have to make an appointment, and it may take weeks before you see him, that deters you from seeing him.

Another said,

He really doesn't find out the pulse of things and depends on a few people and their opinions. I know who those people are and so I go to those people, too, in order to keep in touch with what the principal is thinking.

By contrast, another staff member reported,

Oh, Mr. Jones has power. If the associate principal makes a decision, I can get it changed by going to see Mr. Jones.

Concerning access to the principal by the student body, the consensus was that the principal spent considerable time working with students. His greatest strength was perceived to be his willingness to "mingle with the kids." He was perceived as knowing some students personally. A teacher said, "You know, it's ironic that some kids can see Mr. Jones any time, but staff members have a difficult time and must make an appointment far in advance."

Because access to the principal was uneven, many people turned to the associate principal, Mr. Brown. A supervisor said, "If I have a problem, I go see Mr. Brown. He has a tremendous capacity for work." Another supervisor said, "I have reported to three different people in three years. Now I report to Mr. Brown. He is available and will try to help." Still another member said, "Mr. Brown will spend time with me. He is the facilitator here and is outstanding at keeping the building in one piece and the school running."

Respondents held high expectations for the principal as the instructional leader of the school. A coordinator said, "I like direction from the principal. I want to see him showing his 100 percent. He has to play the part. He has to convince others he is the best actor in the field."



The principal was perceived by some as an instructional leader, but not by others. Respondents stated:

The major contribution of Mr. Jones was in organizing our program. He got us to look at what we taught and to write performance objectives.

His leadership helped cut out the "crap fillers" once a part of our curriculum. He helped people learn how to cut down to the bone exactly what they teach and why.

I really don't think Mr. Jones has much to do with the curriculum. That is left pretty much up to the instructional supervisors.

We are coasting. We suffer from a lack of curricular leadership.

The goals of the superintendent and the board should be reflected in the classroom and vice versa, but they are not. The Central High motto is, "Don't make any waves."

The staff expected the principal to show consideration and support for the staff, students, and parents. Teachers said,

The principal should be out maintaining rapport and supporting the teachers.

The administration should try to understand what teachers are faced with and work to lessen all the paperwork and nonteaching tasks.

The principal has to set the tone. He has to encourage people individually and reward those who deserve it.

People at Central High need to know what their role is and where they stand in the school. As it is now, you never know if you are out of order or not until it's too late.

Mr. Jones exhibits a tone of warmth and interest in the kids, but he doesn't always communicate the same warmth to the staff.

When asked about teacher morale, the principal said,

I hear all of the time about how we can't do this or that because it will hurt staff morale. Sometimes that view is held as a club over our heads. But I get furious when we are urged to listen to that, and yet when we had our dedication ceremonies for the new wing of the building, only five teachers showed up. That disgusts me. They should care more about the school than that!

Administrators, as professionals, are assumed to be able to accept constructive criticism and then act on that criticism. Of course, not all criticism is constructive. The leader must be skilled in ascertaining constructive criticism and responding appropriately. Regarding the principal's acceptance of criticism, the following observations were made by staff members:

One learns to be very careful about what one says. The administration has and does use words you said against you. This principal can't stand it if he thinks someone is saying something he doesn't know about.

Mr. Jones takes criticism much too personally. He is a gentleman who carries a grudge for a long time. He carries negative feelings around with him.

Mr. Jones should know how to handle himself. He is aware of his flaws, but he doesn't do anything about it. His emotions get in the way.

He is so convinced he is right that you cannot reach him or convince him otherwise. He cannot take being challenged.

The problem with the individualized learning program could have been avoided if Mr. Jones would have listened to the staff and would have met with parents and listened to their concerns. He finds it very difficult to accept criticism.

The individualized learning controversy left deep scars on the principal, and the scars were visible. He wore them out front. This impacted on others and made them feel like they were not supported.

Regarding problem solving, respondents said,

Decisions are made differently depending on what they are about.

Central High just never seems to come to closure on issues. They return time and time again to the same issue.

You know we have had three or four attendance policies since I have been here. Instead of modifying and insisting a policy be followed, we change it entirely.

We are not always backed for disciplinary measures. Rules and regulations set down by the board are sometimes applied inconsistently.

Teachers just handle everything from their classroom and keep out of things. They know even if they get involved very little will change. The general feeling is, "I just work here and I'll do what I have to to get along."

The attitudes expressed above were shared by many staff members. An administrator said, "Everyone would like to have more of a say in what goes on at all levels." A supervisor said, "We get asked for our opinions, but no one ever really thinks their opinions count. Decisions are already made and if we don't go along with the decisions, well, it will still happen that way."

Additionally, the staff did not believe they were heard when they brought problems to the attention of the principal. They said,

Mr. Jones doesn't like to hear problems. He wants to hear about programs, but not the day-to-day problems.



Look, Mr. Brown handles all the problems around here. If I have a problem with instructional concerns, building facilities, or any other general administration, I would go see Mr. Brown.

Mr. Jones, as the principal, used his power and authority over the budget and salaries of the middle-level administrators as a means of control. Each supervisor and coordinator submitted his or her budget requests individually to Mr. Jones. After compiling the budget requests, Mr. Jones determined what each department or segment of the school would receive. These budgetary decisions were handled in individual conferences held with the principal. Administrators said,

Mr. Jones maintains tight control over the budget. We never know how much other departments are asking for, nor do we know how much they are receiving. There is no give and take at all.

Anything dealing with the budget Mr. Jones does 100 percent. No decisions are even made as an administrative team. We never get together and have any priority setting in order to determine what is best for the budget.

Mr. Jones decides the entire budget. All decisions on cuts and how much I am to receive for my department come from him.

Mr. Jones also was given a contingency fund by the district designed to meet special schoolwide needs. Authority and power over these funds rested with the principal. An instructional supervisor said,

Mr. Jones is given a lump sum for equipment and supplies, but it is a political thing to get money out of his general contingency fund for maintenance



and repairs. Instead, he guards that money, and we are forced to spend departmental monies on routine building maintenance and repairs.

At one instructional supervisors' meeting, the coordinator of the Instructional Materials Center was presenting the needs of the IMC and what had to be done to update the IMC. At the end of the presentation, Mr. Jones informed the instructional supervisors that their individual budgets would be cut in order to pay for the needs of the IMC. The discussion was heated, with many instructional supervisors criticizing this action and demanding that general funds be used or that the principal go to the board and ask for more funds. After some debate the principal said,

I will not take this request to the board because I don't think it's justified. If you people believe the IMC should have more money, give up some of your budget.

In contrast to the perceptions of those who were a part of the day-to-day operation of the school, the superintendent commented about the participatory nature of the budget-making process and said,

We want as many people as possible involved in the budgetary process. We want the staff to be involved and to help the instructional supervisors determine departmental budget needs. In turn, we want the instructional supervisors to meet with the principal and be given their budget requests when they can show a rationale for why they need the budget. In our system, there are no favorites and no decisions influenced by personalities. We want and encourage involvement in the budgetary process.

Teacher involvement in determining the budget was dependent on which department they were in. In some departments, such as music, the entire department helped decide the budget. In others, such as English, teachers did not have any group decision-making role. Other departments often fell somewhere in the middle, but as teachers said,

There aren't enough checks on ensuring input by the staff into the budget. Therefore, not all teachers are involved. Mr. Jones does not share information and therefore neither do all of the other administrators.

The teachers are not directly involved in the budget-making process. I don't really know how the budget is decided.

In Central High School the channels of communication were not perceived as functioning smoothly. The positional expectations for the principal included the ability to communicate clearly with the whole community. Teachers said,

The biggest issue here at Central High is the lack of communication. More communication is needed between the administration and the staff, between departments, between departments and guidance, and between the school and our feeder schools.

As individuals, the leadership here is warm and friendly, but I don't see them working on anything related to the classroom or the school. There is very little communication between the administration and the staff.

Students also felt a lack of communication and reported that teachers often complained to them about the lack of communication. Staff argued that there needed to be a clear articulation of duties

and roles made by the administration. Instructional supervisors complained of not being involved and informed about what was taking place around the school. Moreover, teachers complained that they often received very little communication from their instructional supervisors.

Perceptions about the superintendent and the central office were beyond the scope of this study. However, the superintendent was generally perceived as the central figure in the district.

Respondents said,

The superintendent is totally in control of this school. All of the decision-making structures of the school are a reflection of his decision-making style.

Dr. Smith functions as the liaison between the school and the board. He does not affect day-to-day operations, but he controls the budget absolutely.

His concerns are with finance. His success is related directly to the sound financial status of the district.

The superintendent is a strong administrator who adheres to written policy and procedures and is very legalistic in his interpretation of policies and power.

Dr. Smith is concerned about appearances and the use of facilities. When he didn't like what was happening at Central High he instituted a reorganization and put Mr. Brown in charge of maintenance and grounds in order to clean things up.

If the superintendent wants to put his finger in the pie, he can at any time.

Respondents held very definite positional role expectations for the administrators of the building including visibility, access to members of the system, instructional leadership, consideration

and support for members of the system, acceptance of constructive criticism, and resolving system problems. Perceptions about the effectiveness of the administrators at Central in terms of the fulfillment of their role expectations varied.

#### Summary

This chapter included the propositions which emerged during the visit to Central High School. The propositions were presented, a brief explanation concerning their meaning was presented, and supporting data from the school were presented. The propositions were organized around the three categories of organizational structure, administrative processes, and administrative behavior.



## CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF RELATED FORMAL THEORY AND  
AN ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter consists of a presentation of formal theory concerning administrative organization, processes, and behaviors that emerged as important after the field-related grounded theoretical statements were developed. The data are then analyzed by comparing the grounded theoretical statements from Chapter III to existing formal theoretical constructs about administrative organization, processes, and behaviors.

The first section contains an analysis using social systems theory with emphasis on the congruence of role expectations and need-dispositions and the role conflicts resulting therefrom. The second section contains an analysis using organization theory with emphasis on Weber's (1947) ideal bureaucracy and Hage's (1965) axiomatic theory of complex organizations. The third section contains an analysis using decision theory with emphasis on decision content, decision stages, and decision involvement. The fourth section contains an analysis using leadership theory with an emphasis on the stages of leadership and leadership style. The fifth section contains an analysis using change theory with an emphasis on Hage and Aiken's (1970) stages of innovative processes and Klausmeier's (1977) implementation phases of the change process.

The sixth section contains an analysis using the administrative processes with an emphasis on Chase's (1955) model of planning, allocating, stimulating, coordinating, and evaluating. The final section of the chapter identifies grounded theory which calls for modifications of present formal theory or identifies new theory about administrative organization, processes, and behaviors.

#### Social Systems Theory

The general theoretical framework for the study of social systems was developed by Parsons (1951) and was applied to educational organizations by Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell (1968). The theory provides a useful analytical framework for examining the school as a social system with specific role expectations and need-dispositions and for depicting social behavior as a function of the social system in which the individual operates.

Lipham (1979) defined three basic dimensions of the school as a dynamic, interactive social system. The model employed by this study as an explanatory paradigm is shown in Figure 4.1. The first dimension, the normative or sociological dimension, consists of the institutional roles and expectations designed to accomplish the goals of the school. Role definitions are in terms of the expectations which are the normative rights and duties of a position. The second dimension, the personal or psychological dimension, consists of the individual personalities with their own unique abilities, interests, and need-dispositions. Each role is stamped by

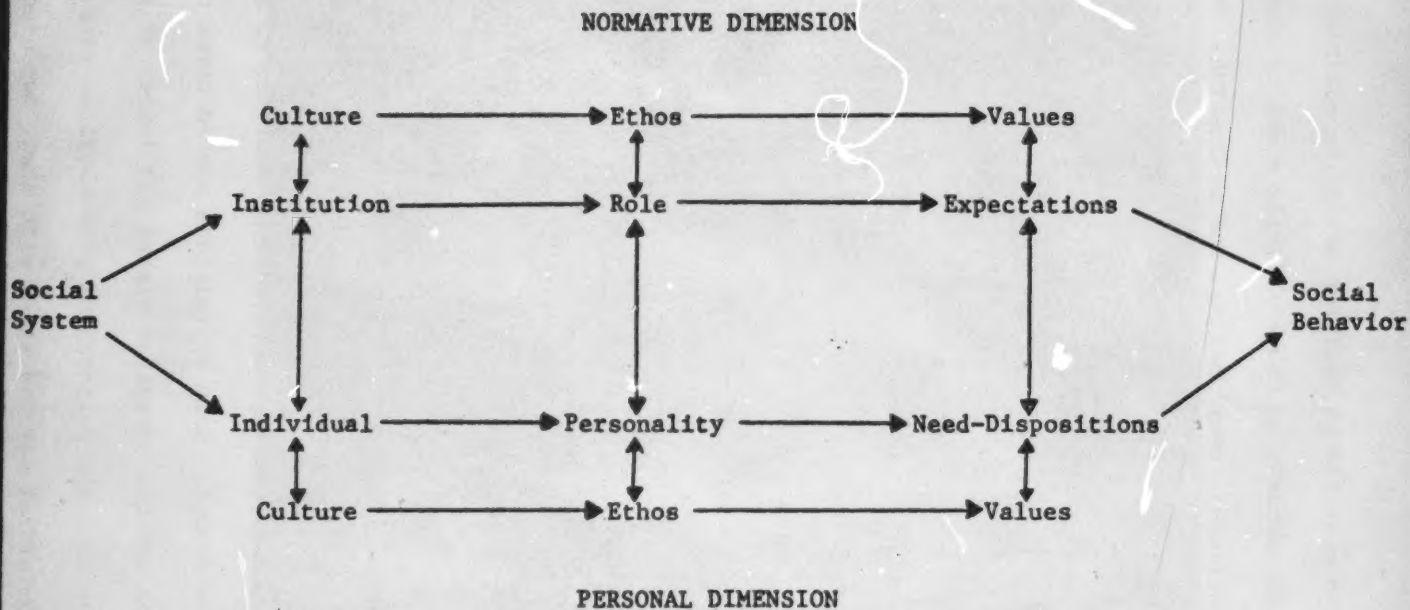


Figure 4.1. Model of the Major Dimensions of Behavior in a Social System.

Adapted from: Getzels, J. W., Lipham, J. M., & Campbell, R. F. Educational administration as a social process. New York: Harper and Row, 1968, p. 105.

the personality of the individual holding the role and determines the personal and institutional interaction with the environment. The third dimension, the culture and its prevailing ethos and values, represents the educational values held by the community, the staff, and the students. Social behavior occurring within the school as a social system can be explained in terms of the relationships among the role expectations of the institution, the personality dispositions of the individual, and the educational values of the surrounding culture.

Social systems theory provided a useful framework for examining the school as a social system. Questions emerged at Central High School concerning the normative dimension consisting of the institutional role expectations of the school and the personal dimension consisting of the need-dispositions of the leaders. A primary issue for the social system was the difference between the role performance of the administrators and expectations held for their institutional roles. The role performance of the administrators led to role incongruence between the institutional role expectations and individual need-dispositions and seemingly created role conflict in the social system.

The first conflict emerged between roles and within roles. Central High School experienced considerable role conflict both within and between roles when departmental chairpersons were elevated to an administrative role as instructional supervisors. At



issue was the actual definition of what that new administrative role entailed. The role expectations and role definitions were not clearly understood by the staff, by the instructional supervisors, or by other administrators.

The staff saw the new role of instructional supervisor in contradictory terms. Some staff members saw the instructional supervisor role as a device instituted by the district and building administration to limit the power and influence of the old departmental chairperson role and as a means of controlling staff power by creating competition among individual departmental instructional supervisors. Some staff members saw the instructional supervisors as fulfilling the role of controlling change. Staff understood that instructional supervisors were fearful of change that might create conflict and draw unfavorable evaluations from the top administrators. That fear was seen as limiting creativity.

On the other hand, some staff saw the instructional supervisors as a primary organizational and administrative force within the school. Major decisions concerning teaching assignment, teaching philosophy, and curricular growth were seen as being mainly in the hands of the instructional supervisors. Staff members with this view saw the instructional supervisors as major decision makers in the school.

The same confusion about role expectations existed among the instructional supervisors. Some instructional supervisors

made it very clear that they felt they dare not stray too far away from the administrative line because of possible negative evaluations from the top administrators. Negative evaluations affected the salaries of the instructional supervisors. Some instructional supervisors did not see themselves as decision makers. They saw their role primarily as the conduit of administrative decisions to the staff.

Conversely, some instructional supervisors saw themselves as being quite powerful. They saw their power as being related to their relationship with the administration. They believed they could circumnavigate policies or procedures by presenting their case personally to the principal. Other administrators and instructional supervisors agreed that some instructional supervisors had power, but believed the power was not related to the role definition and role expectation.

The various educational groups defined the role expectations of the instructional supervisors in different ways. In the eyes of the top administrators, instructional supervisors were a part of the management team and represented the administration to the staff members of their respective departments. Additionally, some saw instructional supervisors as guarding their power and control over their departments. Staff members wanted the instructional supervisors to act as their advocate with the administration and to be their collegial leader in the department. Staff perceptions differed

as to the degree the instructional supervisors fulfilled their role.

Instructional supervisors felt the ambiguity between the role expectations of the staff and of the administration and responded in personalistic ways depending on their own need-dispositions. Some remained "teacher oriented" and received negative evaluations which they attributed to their stance favoring teachers. Some went "by the book" and did little that would reflect negatively in their evaluation. Some built individual power bases related to their political influence with the principal or related to their recognized ability as determined by an outside agency. The instructional supervisory role was in conflict both between and among groups at the school.

Another conflict emerged between the institutional role expectations of the principal and the patterns of need-dispositions characteristic of the principal. A series of institutional role expectations existed for the positional role of the principal. The educational community expected the principal to exhibit behavior that fulfilled his positional role including systemwide visibility, open access to members of the system, instructional leadership, consideration and support for members of the system, acceptance of constructive criticism, and active problem solving.

Despite these positional role expectations, the perception was that the principal did not always fulfill adequately their role



expectations. Perceptions about his visibility were that he was visible in those areas in which he was interested. Access was limited to the top-level students and some staff who used their contact to build influential power bases in the school. The principal was perceived as spending a great amount of time on public relations efforts and a less amount of time on instructional and curricular matters.

Administrative processes were utilized by the principal to solidify his political power. Processes for showing consideration and support evenly to all staff members did not seem to be in place. Staff contact with the principal was held in abeyance by a bureaucratic structure that insulated the principal from direct contact with the staff. Encouragements for particular staff behavior appeared in written memos distributed to the whole staff rather than through personal contact and encouragement.

The principal controlled the budgeting process and the evaluation process of subordinate administrators. Those who pursued an active critical role of the system perceived that their evaluations would be lowered if they were critical. Persistent critics who could not be silenced through budgetary and evaluation controls felt politically isolated and that they had limited influence on the decision-making process.

The behavior of the principal was not in congruence with the expectations of the various groups in relation to problem solving.



His direct contacts were limited to selected people. As a result, some members of the system felt isolated and tended not to identify with the system nor participate actively in problem solving. The impact of the role performance of the principal became an important consideration in understanding the organizational structure and operation of the school.

#### Organization Theory

In addition to the school's fulfilling the program components of the IGE/Secondary model (Klausmeier, 1979), the formal organization of the school illustrates the Weberian model of bureaucracy (1947) and axiomatic organizational theory (Hage, 1965). Weber (1947) enumerated five characteristics of an ideal bureaucracy including division of labor and specialization; impersonal orientation; hierarchy of authority, rules and regulations; and career orientation.

Division of labor is defined as distributing the required activities of the organizational structure in a fixed way as official duties of a particular role position. Division of labor is assumed to produce specialization with people in role positions becoming knowledgeable and expert at performing their required duties. Efficiency increases as a result of the specialization.

Impersonal orientation refers to the working atmosphere of a bureaucracy. Formalization is the mode and a bureaucratic employee is expected to make decisions based on facts, not feelings.

Hierarchy of authority refers to the principle that each lower office should be under the control and supervision of a higher one. A system of superordination guarantees the disciplined compliance with directives from superiors and assures the completing of various tasks and functions of the organization.

Every bureaucracy has a system of rules and regulations intentionally established which govern the implementation of the rules. The rights and duties of each position are defined and ensure uniformity and stability of employee action within a bureaucracy.

Employment in a bureaucratic organization is assumed to be based on technical qualifications and constitutes a career. Promotion depends on the judgment of superiors and is based on seniority, achievement, or both.

The ideal bureaucracy is based on these five characteristics and maximizes rational decision making and administrative efficiency. Division of labor and specialization produce experts who, based on an impersonal orientation, make technically correct decisions based on facts. Decisions are complied with because of a hierarchy of authority and clear rules and regulations. The system is coordinated, and implementation of decisions, uniformity of application of decisions, and stability of the system is guaranteed. The career orientation of the employees guarantees loyalty to the organization and ensures extra productive effort.

The organizational structure at Central High School exhibited many of the characteristics of an ideal bureaucracy as outlined by Weber (1947). There was a division of labor and specialization, impersonal orientation, hierarchy of authority, rules and regulations, and a career orientation.

A clear division of labor existed at the school. Indeed, the only generalists in the organization were the principal and associate principal. Administratively, the leadership team below the principal and the associate principal were all in roles with specified duties. For example, there was a coordinator of guidance who was charged with the management and administration of the guidance program at the school. He was considered to be the expert regarding counseling and guidance and was to be a major decision maker for guidance-related issues. Similarly, there was a coordinator for the Instructional Materials Center, a coordinator of athletics, a dean of students, and a coordinator of student activities with specific areas of expertise. Instructional supervisors were chosen because of expertise in their particular academic fields. Each of the administrative coordinators and instructional supervisors was assumed to be an expert and was to be the primary decision maker for his or her area.

Despite having the various specialists and despite the formal organizational structure where decision-making authority was to be handled in each specialized area, some decisions were not the



province of the specialist. The final decision maker was perceived as the principal for the building and the superintendent for the district, and neither the principal nor the superintendent necessarily followed the recommendations of the specialists. Indeed, some decisions were politically oriented and were made at times because of political implications.

Those specialists who understood the political nature of the decision-making process developed personal coalitions that they could utilize when they desired a particular decision outcome. Other specialists not so astute at the political process cultivated favor with those perceived to have power and influence. So, while a division of labor and specialization existed, the political nature of the organization appeared to make it necessary for the specialists to build personal power bases to fulfill the needs of their specialty area. Further analysis of the political nature of the decision-making process will be presented in later sections of this chapter.

The organizational structure formally exhibited an impersonal orientation and a hierarchy of authority. Teachers were supposed to report to their instructional supervisors; instructional supervisors reported to the duty-specific coordinators for specific problems and the associate principal or the principal for general problems; and the principal reported to the superintendent. Decisions were to be made by the various individuals based on the



factual information generated by either the director of research for the district or the individuals presenting the problem.

Clearly, those at the top of the organization expected the chain of command to be followed and expected factual analysis of issues presented to them for consideration. The breakdown of the hierarchy happened when decisions from the top did not follow the chain of command. Both the principal and the superintendent could and did impose decisions without involving the specialists and sometimes without informing them about the decision. Factual analyses were sometimes ignored in budgetary decisions.

Formal rules and regulations existed and defined the rights and duties of each position within the hierarchy. The formal structure of rules and regulations was unevenly enforced, and those with influence appeared to receive preferential treatment. As in many school districts, parents with political influence ignored the formal structure and made direct appeals to the principal, the superintendent, or the board of education for solutions to their problems. Staff members were aware of the informal power of some individuals and sometimes altered their behavior to prevent such appeals to the top. The uneven application of rules and regulations meant that sometimes the staff was confused about who to go to for a particular decision. Conflicting messages were given to the staff by the administrators.

The bureaucracy was affected by the role performance of the administrators, and those performances were often politically

motivated. Decision making by the administrators was not always based on facts presented by specialists. The hierarchy was clearly defined for those in a subordinate role, but sometimes ignored by those at the top. Uniformity of decision making was not evident, and knowledge of the existence of exceptions to the rule created some resentment among subordinates. Productivity was affected. Assumptions about the decision-making style of the administrators pointed to the political and personalistic nature of decisions made by the administrators and was assumed to affect their administrative efficiency.

Hage (1965) used the work of Weber and other earlier organizational theorists to develop a general axiomatic theory of organizations. Eight variables related to organizations were identified with four "means" variables and four "ends" variables. The four "means" variables refer to the organizational structure and include complexity, centralization, formalization, and stratification. Complexity refers to the number of occupational specialties and the level of training of persons in the organization. Centralization refers to the distribution of power and is measured by the number of organization members participating in the making of decisions and the content areas in which decisions are made. Formalization refers to the specific codification of various jobs and amount of variation allowed individuals in performing the job. Stratification refers to the income and status attached to various

positions and the rate of mobility between low and high ranking jobs in the organization.

The four "ends" variables refer to the performance or outcomes of the organization and include adaptiveness, production, efficiency, and job satisfaction. Adaptiveness refers to the flexibility and creativity of an organization in terms of new programs and techniques. Production refers to the effectiveness of an organization in terms of the number and rate of units produced in a year. Efficiency refers to the cost per unit. Job satisfaction refers to morale in terms of satisfaction with working conditions and the rate of turnover in the organization.

Hage developed seven propositions related to the "means" variables and the "ends" variables. The seven were:

- I. The higher the centralization, the higher the production.
- II. The higher the formalization, the higher the efficiency.
- III. The higher the centralization, the higher the formalization.
- IV. The higher the stratification, the lower the job satisfaction.
- V. The higher the stratification, the higher the production.
- VI. The higher the stratification, the lower the adaptiveness.
- VII. The higher the complexity, the lower the centralization.

Two extreme organizational models emerge in relationship to the above propositions. The organic organization is characterized by high complexity, low centralization, low stratification, low formalization, high adaptiveness, low production, low efficiency, and high job satisfaction. The mechanistic organization is characterized by low complexity, high centralization, high stratification, high formalization, low adaptiveness, high production, high efficiency, and low job satisfaction.

Axiomatic theory emerged as a viable way of further analyzing the organizational structure at Central High School. Certain aspects of Hage's seven propositions and twenty corollaries seemed to be contradictory with the data from the school. Additionally, the school appeared to exhibit some of the characteristics of both an organic organization and a mechanistic organization.

Hage (1965) postulated that in an organization, the higher the centralization, the higher the production. At the school, decisions were made ultimately by the principal or the superintendent. Numerous people were specified as being decision makers, but when questioned, they indicated that they often were not decision makers. Instructional supervisors did not consider themselves to be decision makers except on an individual basis, where as individuals they had captured a degree of power. There were administrative council meetings and instructional supervisors meetings weekly, but these meetings were utilized to gain input and not to make decisions.



When researchers have applied the variable of production to school organizations, they have referred to the effectiveness of the organizational structure as measured by the amount of time spent in meetings by the administrative council and the instructional supervisors, the interaction between the members at these meetings and at later times, whether control of meetings is shared, and the outcome in terms of student test scores. The amount of time spent in meetings was considered high for the relatively small results. Members of the various councils did not interact widely, and some did not perceive that they could make decisions or exert control. The test scores for the students of Central High were lower than the scores of the other high schools in the district. Because of the above factors, the centralized nature of the organization did not enhance organization productivity.

Hage (1965) postulated that in an organization the higher the stratification, the higher the production. If production is viewed in the terms identified above, this postulate did not hold at Central High School. While the organizational structure was stratified with clear rewards attached to positions and a relatively small amount of upward mobility, the production was not particularly high. Again, the reason had more to do with the role ambiguity and corresponding role incongruence between the institutional role expectations and the political nature of the leadership than with the lack of stratification. There was an expectation that the lowest

levels of the organization would follow the chain of command, but the highest levels of the organization could ignore the chain of command. Consequently, some people who aggressively sought answers and decisions through personal appeals to the leadership were successful, while others waited indefinitely for decisions. Individuals coped with this situation by developing political influence in the organization or by isolating themselves and stressing their individual activities instead of the organization's goals and objectives.

Hage (1965) postulated that in an organization the higher the formalization, the higher the efficiency. At Central High School, there was a high degree of formalization and each job was codified by a specific job description. The large number of administrative positions meant there were specialists for practically every aspect of life at the school.

Job descriptions were written and were used for hiring purposes. However, role ambiguity created a condition whereby the formal job descriptions were often ignored. Experts charged with being the major decision makers within a particular area often found their decisions altered. The result was confusion over who formally could make decisions.

Efficiency when measured in terms of the contributions of the staff was not high. Despite formalized job descriptions, the failure to utilize the talents of those within a position meant

that the efficiency of the organization was not very high. Formalization and its relationship to efficiency must be considered in the context of the leadership of the organization.

Hage (1965) postulated that in an organization the higher the centralization, then the higher the formalization. The data from Central High School supported this proposition. There was a high degree of centralization with the locus of final decision-making authority at the principalship and superintendency levels. There was a corresponding high degree of written formalization of policies, rules, and regulations.

Hage (1965) postulated that in an organization the higher the stratification, then the lower the job satisfaction. At Central High School, the number of administrators with high salary increments attached to their job was a major concern of the teaching staff. Additionally, while there were available resources in the district, members of the teaching staff pointed out the difficulty in getting certain needed building improvements approved. Job satisfaction was low because of the stratification and because of the perceived unequal effort to meet the needs of all of the staff. It was pointed out that some programs had adequate funding, while other programs suffered from a lack of available funds. Most attributed this situation to the preferences of the administrators and the community.



The leadership of the school tended to negate the factor of low job satisfaction. The principal pointed out how "good everyone had it" at Central High School. He saw job dissatisfaction as related to the relative lack of upward mobility for the members of the organization. The economic rewards for the staff were such that leaving would be economically costly. So, despite low job satisfaction, many people remained at the school and protected their economic positions.

Other corollaries connected to this proposition that were confirmed included: the lower the adaptiveness, the lower the job satisfaction; the higher the centralization, the lower the job satisfaction; and the higher the formalization, the lower the job satisfaction. Relationships between centralization, formalization, and stratification and job satisfaction were evident. Respondents identified the organizational structure as being highly centralized with decision-making power at the principalship and superintendency levels; highly formalized with specialized jobs clearly spelled out; and highly stratified with clear rewards for those in administrative positions. Despite efforts to negate the centralization, formalization, and stratification through formal structures designed to involve those at the lowest level in decision making, groups low in the hierarchy of the organization perceived their inputs to decision making as being limited. This condition was a major dissatisfier for some staff, students, and parents.



One corollary, the higher the complexity, the higher the job satisfaction, was not supported. The organizational structure at Central High School was quite complex with numerous positions calling for a high degree of specialized training. There were several administrative positions, and district policy urged the staff to pursue additional education and training on a regular basis. Despite the complexity of the organization, job satisfaction was not high. Perhaps the explanation for the low job satisfaction and the high complexity can be explained because of other features of the organization that do not fit the propositions. Typically, high complexity would be coupled with low centralization, low formalization, and low stratification; but at Central High, centralization, formalization, and stratification were high. Perhaps a different proposition about job satisfaction must be developed when organizations exhibit high complexity, high centralization, high formalization, and high stratification.

Hage (1965) postulated that in an organization the higher the stratification, the lower the adaptiveness. The evidence at Central High School supported this proposition. Certainly, the differentiated chain of command was responsible for creating a process whereby curricular change was a lengthy endeavor. This sharply defined process for curricular change, with numerous organizational levels to pass through, meant that any curricular change finally adopted was two, three, or four steps removed from the

originator of the change. Additionally, the chain of command worked to prevent cross-departmental discussions and cooperation among the teaching staff. Interdepartmental teaching efforts were seen as a threat to the authority of the individual instructional supervisor. Consequently, innovations tended to be departmentally or teacher specific with little sharing throughout the system.

Hage (1965) postulated that in an organization the higher the complexity, the lower the centralization. Corollaries relating to the above proposition included: the higher the complexity, the lower the formalization; the lower the complexity, the higher the stratification; and the higher the complexity, the higher the adaptiveness. Neither the proposition nor the corollaries were supported. As already discussed, the school was highly complex, highly centralized, highly formalized, and highly stratified. High adaptiveness and high complexity were probably not related because of the relationship between complexity and the other variables. Different propositions about complexity as a variable can be offered when the variables of high centralization, high formalization, and high stratification are in place. Further discussion of the relationship of the variables mentioned will be done under the section on grounded theory.

The organizational type that emerged at Central High was neither clearly organic nor mechanistic. The organizational model of the school was as follows:

|                     |                      |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| High complexity     | Low adaptiveness     |
| High centralization | Low production       |
| High formalization  | Low efficiency       |
| High stratification | Low job satisfaction |

Explanations for the picture of the organization that emerged were related to several factors not considered by Hage (1965). Those factors are identified here, and a more detailed discussion of them will be done under the section on grounded theory. First, the leadership style had a direct impact on the organizational variables. Second, the decision-making mechanisms established and utilized by the leaders had a direct impact on the organizational variables. Finally, the political nature of administration had a direct impact on the organizational variables.

#### Decision Theory

Decision making has been defined by Lipham (1974, p. 84) as a rational process whereby "awareness of a problematic state of a system, influenced by information and values, is reduced to competing alternatives, among which a choice is made, based upon estimated outcomes states of the system." He further defined decision making as a rational process, as a process giving attention to decision content, decision stages, and decision involvement (Lipham, 1979).

Decision content refers to what a decision deals with in terms of the administrative functions of curriculum and instruction, student personnel, finance and business management, school plant services, and home-school-community relations. Decision content



varies according to the levels of the organization, and some decisions are relevant to the teaching-learning level, some at the schoolwide level, and some at the districtwide level.

Decision stages refers to how a decision is made. Rational decision making has six stages including identifying the nature of the problem, clarifying and defining the problem, formulating and weighing alternatives, making the decision choice, implementing the decision solution, and evaluating the effectiveness of the decision.

Decision involvement refers to "who" participates in making a decision, how often they participate, and the level of their participation. The most important consideration for decision involvement has emerged as a five-point scale including making the decision, suggesting specific alternatives, helping in formulating alternatives, providing information about the decision, and having no involvement in the decision (Eye, Lipham, Netzer, 1965).

Numerous studies have been conducted at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center concerning various aspects of decision making (Feldman, 1977; Holmquist, 1976; Kawleski, 1977; Nerlinger, 1975; Moyle, 1977; Wright, 1976). Two recent studies concerning decision making have significance for this study. Watkins (1978) examined the philosophies, structures, processes, and groups engaged in decision making; the involvement of personnel in the decision-making process; and the satisfaction of school personnel with the structures and processes and their involvement in decision making.



He found it essential that there be a clearly articulated, understood, and internalized philosophy of education. Further, the principal determined the decision-making policy, and while in schools that attempt to individualize instruction, decisions are shared among all those involved, the authority for determining this approach lies with the principal. Finally, those decision-making structures that are highly satisfying to the staff are those which facilitate intradepartmental and interdepartmental exchange of information and opinion, accelerate decision making at the teacher-learner level, and afford ready access to administrators.

Speed (1979) focused on the actual and desired frequency and extent of involvement in the decision-making process in relation to the level of teacher job satisfaction in schools. He found that teachers generally desired increased participation in decision making with very strong desires for an increased participative role in schoolwide decisions. He also found the decision condition of teachers to relate significantly and directly to their overall and facet job satisfaction. A further conclusion by Speed was that administrators must ascertain the decisional condition of all teachers and adjust the decisional involvement according to the discrepancy between actual and desired extent of involvement perceived by teachers rather than that perceived by administrators.

The significance of decision theory and the research findings of Watkins and Speed to this study emerged as grounded theory from

the site pointed to a significant discrepancy between the perceived decision-making style of the chief administrator and the desired decision-making style of the staff and other members of the educational community.

At Central High School decisions concerning curriculum and instruction were supposed to be made at the departmental level with the involvement of students, parents, staff, the administrator in charge of the department, the associate principal, the principal, and the superintendent. New ideas for courses were supposedly proposed by students, community members, staff, or administrators; developed by a committee of staff members and others at the departmental level; and presented to the council of instructional supervisors for a rational analysis. The council approved and ranked ordered curricular proposals and sent them to the principal, who approved or disapproved the proposals and sent them on to the superintendent. Additionally, once new courses were approved, they were supposed to be evaluated one year later by the associate principal and the instructional supervisor for the department.

The above decision process designed to involve a significant number of the members of the organization and to provide a means for their input into the decision-making process seemed to fit all of the parameters of participative rational decision-making. On closer analysis, however, the decision-making process for curriculum and instruction was not always rational and did not always

encourage participation. First, the departments were isolated or fractionalized so that clarifications and definitions of curricular problems took place without regard to schoolwide concerns. Contact by the staff of one department with other departments was limited and sometimes discouraged by instructional supervisors. Instructional supervisors discouraged interdepartmental contact because they might be accused of creating conflict and because interdepartmental efforts might diffuse their power. Curricular needs were often clarified not in terms of schoolwide needs, but in terms of how to enhance a particular department. Alternatives formulated within each department often failed to take into account similar efforts by the staff of other departments.

Second, actual decision choices were not always made on a rational basis. The council of instructional supervisors did not always vote for new curricular proposals based on rationally determined needs of the school. Votes were often based on what the impact of a new course would be on the other departments and their course offerings. Departmental course offerings were carefully guarded and remained in place even in the face of identified needs for change or alteration. Voting for various new curricular proposals often involved political infighting with the final decision the result of power plays and tradeoffs by those instructional supervisors who held political power or influence.



Additionally, in some instances where the instructional supervisors had successfully recommended a new curricular proposal through the designated rational process, the principal, as the final decision maker for the building, had refused to recommend their proposal for reasons related to his own political perceptions. The principal had led a massive curricular change for the school at one time and had faced severe challenges from the community over those changes. Many instructional supervisors saw the above mentioned experience as the reason why the principal hesitated to approve further change and often vetoed curricular changes recommended to him. They saw the principal as the primary decision maker in the school and saw him use that authority to maintain the status quo despite rationally identified new curricular needs.

The principal's enthusiastic support for individualized learning and for extracurricular activities was seen as a limitation of the rational decision-making process for curriculum and instruction. Despite earlier problems with the effort to individualize the entire curriculum, the principal was still actively attempting to implement individualized learning. No one objected directly to the concept of individualization, but what staff members and others objected to was the principal's reluctance to face and solve the problems identified with the individualizing effort done earlier. The principal was seen as refusing to accept the reports about problems associated with the individualized program and was



pursuing a political strategy whereby those who supported individualized learning received benefits and enhanced personal power or influence.

The evaluation that took place in the school was related to personnel matters. The administrators were evaluated by a system of management by objectives. Those objectives were supposedly developed jointly by the top-level administrators and the lower-level administrators. Here, what emerged as a question was the extent of involvement by the lower-level administrators in the process. The top-level administrators claimed the objectives were mutually developed and followed a rational process, tying the objectives to the expectations of the particular role. The lower-level administrators disputed their participatory role in developing the objectives for their evaluation. Some believed that their lists of objectives prepared for the top-level administrators were ignored or changed based on their personal relationship with the principal or their political influence in the system. Additionally, some claimed the changes were not related to the role expectations for their positions.

Decisions concerning finance and business management and school plant services were handled in much the same manner as curricular and personnel decisions. For the purposes of the budget, the instructional supervisor or the coordinator in charge of the department was to prepare an annual budget with the consultation of the staff and submit the final product to the principal.

Because there was no process for interdepartmental budgetary decision making, budgets submitted by each department failed to reflect accurately the needs of the entire school. Because there was no administrative process for intradepartmental budgetary decision making, some departments involved the total staff, some involved only those with long tenure, and some did not involve the staff except to ask individual teachers what they wanted for the next year.

The principal took all budgetary requests under advisement and dealt with each request individually. Cuts and additions were reportedly shared with the instructional supervisors or the coordinators involved. There was little evidence of joint budgetary planning by all members of the administration.

Beyond the above mentioned formal processes, staff, students, and parents were involved in the decision making through staff, student, and parent advisory forums. Each of these forums met with the principal and other appropriate administrators on a monthly basis. The forums were designed to provide staff, students, and parents opportunities to comment on respective administrative decisions, provide input on prospective administrative decisions, and call attention to the need for a particular alternative not being considered.

The process was supposedly a part of the participative rational decision-making mechanism and was to aid the administration

in identifying the problem, clarifying and defining the problem, and formulating and weighing alternative solutions to problems. The process was seen as breaking down when the top-level administrators ignored the input from the three groups. Individuals with political influence found they could get results by direct appeal or pressure whereas individuals who participated in the various advisory forums felt that their suggestions were ignored, altered, or refused. The forums ostensibly developed to involve staff, students, and parents in the decision-making process were judged by the participants to be less than adequate.

Decision involvement emerged as a major issue at Central High School and was a major dissatisfier for the respondents. Formal processes for involvement including suggesting specific alternatives, helping in formulating alternatives, and providing information about the decision were in place, but the final decision-making authority was reserved to the principal, the superintendent, and the board. Respondents would have approved of the formal processes if the formal processes had been perceived as being followed. A discrepancy emerged between what was stated policy and what was actual practice. When the respondents saw few curricular goals based on the needs of all of the students and the community, and when they saw their efforts to develop such goals ignored, they judged the top-level administrators harshly. When respondents saw evaluations and financial management controlled by the top-level

administrators and used to control changes and criticism, they saw their decision involvement in personnel evaluation and financial matters as very low. When respondents observed that advisory forums designed to gather staff, student, and parent input were seemingly sometimes ignored by the top-level administrators, they saw their decision involvement in the overall decision-making process as very little. The formal processes that seemingly provided for great involvement in the decision-making procedures of the school were seen in actuality as a public relations ploy by the administrators while actually limiting involvement on the part of staff, students, and parents.

The findings of this study concerning decision making supported the findings of Watkins (1978) and Speed (1979). The apparent lack of a clearly articulated, understood, and internalized schoolwide philosophy of education meant decisions were made based not on the identified needs of the school community but on the political inter- and intrarelations within the administrative structure. Respondents felt that they were not involved in the decision-making processes and blamed the principal for their lack of involvement. The principal was seen as the person who set the tone for the school and held tight control over the decision-making processes. Processes providing inter- and intradepartmental exchanges of information were apparently not in place and led to isolation between departments and within a department.



The above conditions were judged by respondents as contributing to their job dissatisfaction. They felt frustration in having processes formally established for some participative decision making and yet having their input ignored in the actual decision-making process. They considered themselves to be experts in their respective areas and desired participation in the decision-making process for their areas of expertise. They saw a need to tie all of the various facets of the school together into a comprehensive whole and wanted a voice in those schoolwide decisions.

The perceptions of the staff and other members of the educational community about their decisional involvement emerged as significantly different than the view held by the principal and the superintendent. Both the principal and the superintendent believed staff, students, and parents were adequately involved in the decision-making process. The staff, students, and parents, however, did not agree and believed they were not adequately involved in the decision-making process. The respondents attributed their lack of decisional involvement to the leadership style of the top-level administrators.

#### Leadership Theory

Leadership in education has been defined as "that behavior of an individual which initiates changes in goals, objectives, configurations, procedures, inputs, processes, and ultimately the outputs of a social system" (Lipham, 1973, p. 6). While leadership

theory has examined and discussed locus, frequency, potency, scope, and style of leadership (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974), the significant aspects of leadership theory applicable to this study related to the stages of leadership and leadership style.

The stages of leadership have been broken into the following taxonomy by Lipham and Hoeh (1974, p. 184):

1. Attempted leadership: acts that include expression of an intention to initiate a new structure for dealing with a problematic state of a social system.
2. Accepted leadership: acts that are mutually acknowledged as a tentative solution to a problematic state of a social system.
3. Implemented leadership: acts that have initiated a new structure in a social system.
4. Effective leadership: acts that have initiated a new structure and have met the expectations for resolving a problematic state of a social system.

The significance of this taxonomy of leadership stages emerged as grounded theory from the site pointed to significant questions about the sequential stages of leadership. Questions concerning the leadership stages were important considerations of the administrative leadership on the site selected for study.

Numerous taxonomies of leadership style have been developed (Getzels & Guba, 1975; Halpin & Winer, 1957; House, 1971; Lewin,

Lippitt, & White, 1939), but the most appropriate taxonomy of leadership style for this study was that developed by Bowers and Seashore (1966). According to Bowers and Seashore leadership behavior may be viewed as consisting of goal emphasis, work facilitation, support, and interaction facilitation. Goal emphasis refers to behavior which stimulates enthusiasm for meeting the group's goals or achieving excellent performance. Work facilitation refers to behavior which helps goal attainment by scheduling, planning, and coordinating. Support refers to behavior which enhances someone else's feelings of personal worth and importance. Interaction facilitation refers to behavior which encourages members of the group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationships.

These descriptive classifications have been used by numerous researchers to explain leadership behavior of administrators and supervisors and to explain how that behavior relates to the outcomes of the school. What has been found is that the leadership behavior of administrators is a powerful factor which influences the adoption and institutionalization of an educational change (Carlson, 1962; Goodridge, 1975), and that leadership style may have to vary to facilitate the stages of the change process (Neiner, 1978). Further, the nature and quality of leadership provided by administrators and supervisors was directly and positively related to the perceived effectiveness of the decision-making process (Kawleski, 1977; Moyle, 1977; Smith, 1974; Speed, 1979; Watkins, 1978); perceived



effectiveness of instruction (Gramenz, 1974); and staff satisfaction and morale (Mendenhall, 1977; Speed, 1979).

The analysis of the data concerning leadership stages and leadership style essentially confirmed what others have said about leadership stages (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974) and about leadership style (Bowers & Seashore, 1966). Additionally, an emphasis on the political nature and implications of leadership acts was indicated and pointed to a possible alteration of the definitions of leadership style in actual practice.

A major area of concern for the members of the school community was the leadership of the principal in relationship to their individualized learning program. The principal and the school community had attempted a significant individualized learning program. The principal was an expert in the area of individualized learning and attempted to initiate a new curricular instructional pattern. Planning was done and individualized learning was initiated for approximately half of the curricular offerings of the school.

Initially, the principal's leadership efforts were partially accepted, and the new individualized learning structure was partially implemented. From the beginning, however, questions concerning the effectiveness of the individualized learning program emerged. Problems with the individualized learning structure emerged and were not seen as being effectively dealt with by the principal. For example, specified proposes and objectives were



developed for each course, but the objectives were the same for all students instead of for individual students. Some departments were not convinced of the merit of the individualized learning program and did not develop individualized learning courses. The result was two systems of instruction operating simultaneously. Processes for handling the new demands of an individualized learning program were apparently not developed, and provisions for equal treatment of the individualized learning efforts and the traditional learning efforts were not developed. The schedule did not change, so students who finished a course early had no new course to be enrolled in until the end of the semester. Student progress was seen as not adequately monitored, and the number of students with incompletes became a major concern for parents and staff members.

Such problems called for effective leadership through acts resolving the problematic state of the social system. The principal needed to listen to those who were pointing out the inadequacies of the program, but instead he insisted his model of individualized learning was correct. Those staff members who disagreed believed they were isolated and criticized for their failure to agree. The community apparently was not adequately involved or informed about the program and ultimately made their complaints public.

The experience of the individualized learning program was referred to as an example of where the principal did not follow through all of the stages of leadership. Respondents felt that he

became convinced of the unassailable rightness of his concept of individualized learning and would not take the necessary steps to correct deficiencies. Further, when others pointed out the necessary alterations, those individuals became isolated because of political alliances both within and outside of the building. Subsequently, the community uprising forced the administrators to alter the program.

The principal's and the superintendent's leadership style was an issue at Central High School. Researchers have found that the principal must provide goal emphasis through behavior that stimulates enthusiasm for group goals or an excellent performance. The principal was perceived as very supportive of certain group goals and enthusiastically urged students and staff members to achieve success in extracurricular activities. The principal was an active fan of these extracurricular events and gave his personal backing to those who excelled. The principal saw college entry as a worthy goal and would go out of his way to aid top-level students seeking college admission. The principal supported individualized learning as a goal and frequently met with those teachers who were still attempting to individualize in their classrooms.

Respondents reported that such goal emphasis related behaviors were not practiced by the principal on a schoolwide basis. He was not perceived as being helpful in identifying, articulating, and supporting a clear educational philosophy for all of the staff

members. He was not visible to many members of the system. Respondents perceived that it was very difficult to get to see the principal and reported appointments often had to be made weeks in advance.

Work facilitation behaviors which aid goal attainment have been shown to be important. Such behaviors include scheduling, planning, coordinating, and generally serving as a problem solver. Many of these behaviors were exhibited by the administrative team. The administrative assistant was specifically responsible for scheduling teachers, students, and meetings such as back-to-school nights for parents. All of these scheduling efforts were carefully handled and fulfilled the scheduling needs of the educational community.

Planning processes for curricular review, curricular development, budget development, and budget review were in place. The principal met regularly with various committees that examined the curriculum and the budget. Together with lower-level administrators who served on these committees, the principal was expected to coordinate schoolwide curricular needs with available resources and develop a comprehensive curricular plan in accordance with the school philosophy. On further analysis, work facilitation behaviors were not always exhibited by the principal. The principal spent considerable amounts of meeting time discussing personal items not applicable to curricular or budgetary concerns. He was perceived as withholding vital information about the budget and turned meetings



about purchases into political marathons where the lower-level administrators were forced to compete against one another rather than cooperate in developing a plan to meet schoolwide needs.

Interaction facilitation behaviors which aid in developing close mutually satisfying relationships have been shown to be important. Such behaviors on the part of the principal as meeting informally with the staff, meeting formally with staff, chatting informally with the staff over lunch, providing opportunities for staff social get-togethers, and recognizing excellent performances through personal contact are helpful in facilitating staff interaction. The principal exhibited these behaviors with a selected number of staff members. Other respondents stated that the principal was rarely in their area, would not hold large-group teacher meetings to discuss curriculum philosophy, did not go into the faculty lunch room and chat informally with staff, and rarely personally recognized individual efforts of staff members.

The principal was not perceived as exhibiting behaviors to the whole staff that would support work facilitation, goal achievement, or interaction facilitation. He did exhibit support to selected staff, students, and parents, and succeeded in building a power base of allies who supported him during times of controversy or adversity. Respondents knew who these people were and often succeeded in achieving a personal goal by allying themselves with these people. Others built personal power bases outside the school.



Perceptions about the superintendent were beyond the scope of this study. Respondents, however, viewed him as high in goal emphasis and work facilitation. He emphasized goals and work through memos, policies, and orders. His goals were seen as facilitating economic efficiency of the district.

The political-personal styles of the top-level administrators were seen as affecting the participative rational decision-making and change processes of the school. The impact of the leadership style on decision making and change indicated a dynamic interrelationship between leadership, decision making, and change.

#### Change Theory

Several theoretical constructs of change were reviewed for this study including the problem-solving model (Jung & Lippitt, 1966); the social interaction model (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971); the research-development-diffusion model (Guba & Clark, 1974); and the linkage model (Havelock & Lingwood, 1973). Additionally, the stages of change as delineated by Hage and Aiken (1970) and the phases of change as conceptualized by Klausmeier, Karges, and Krupa (1977) were reviewed and considered to be most applicable to this study because of its emphasis upon administrative impact and administrative structure, processes, and behavior in a school.

Lipham (1979) identified the primary role of the principal behavior and action which will foster those changes that will enhance teaching and learning in the local school. If the leadership

role in change can be seen as a dynamic process, then the primary change agents must consider what Hage and Aiken (1970, p. 94) called stages in the innovative processes of organizations. Those stages are:

1. Evaluation--the first stage in which organizational decision makers (a) determine that their system is not accomplishing its goals as effectively as it could be, and (b) change the goals of their system.
2. Initiation--The second stage is concerned with the decision making and problem solving to find required job skills and financial support that are required for the innovation.
3. Implementation--This is the initial attempt to integrate the innovation into the organization. Resistance and disequilibrium are likely to be high because of unexpected problems and sources of resistance that are likely to be encountered as the innovation is actually introduced.
4. Routinization--This follows the initial trial that took place in the implementation stage. In routinization the decision is made to retain the innovation and fully integrate it into the ongoing activities of the organization.

Using Hage and Aiken and other models of change, the staff of the Wisconsin Research and Development Center conceptualized a process for implementing change in schools that attempt to individualize

instruction (Klausmeier, Karges, & Krupa, 1977). Those processes were:

1. Awareness Phase. Local educators become sensitive to the need for change and become informed about programmatic alternatives. Decision makers are given an overview of a program in order to stimulate them to consider it, and information regarding the required commitments to adopt it.
2. Commitment Phase. Local decision makers compile the necessary information and secure the necessary commitments, approvals, and cooperation of people--staff, parents, community groups, and the school board. At the end of this phase, the decision to adopt or not to adopt the program improvement is made. In making the decision to adopt, local educators are provided with information describing the change, cost factors, evaluation results, and the requirements for implementing the change.
3. Changeover Phase. The school staff becomes prepared to make the changeover. First, leaders are identified, receive instruction regarding the change, and develop plans for implementation. Specific plans are operationalized during the changeover period, and throughout, the school staff participates in ongoing staff development.

4. Refinement Phase. After school staffs have begun implementing the change program, they find that new understandings and skills are required to refine their implementation efforts. The need for refinement emerges out of the fact that the staff members are expected to perform their responsibilities in new ways. On the basis of systematic feedback, the change program itself may also be refined.
5. Renewal Phase. This stage includes activities designed to identify and resolve unanticipated problems, to develop improved ways of implementing change, and to prepare successive generations of professional personnel to fill new and expanded roles.

Recent research completed at the Research and Development Center has dealt with various phases of the change process. For the purposes of this study, the findings of Neiner (1978) were significant. Neiner found that the nature and quality of leadership behavior appropriate to the various phases of change were crucial to effecting educational change. He also found that the following components including a shared decision-making structure, the creation of a personable environment, adequate inservice training of the staff, and a program of continuing curricular development were necessary to facilitate the kind of effective role fulfillment as a change agent. Other studies by Daresh (1978) and Lehr (1979)



concurred and pointed out the importance of the principal as the facilitator of change and as a major ingredient in determining the success or failure of inservice efforts aimed at promoting and maintaining innovations.

The relevance of the theory and related research to this study emerged as grounded theory from the site pointed to difficulties related to change. Three recent events in the life of the school community where questions concerning planned change arose were the individualized learning controversy, the creation of the new instructional supervisor role, and the development of the curriculum planning process.

The individualized learning controversy illustrated the approach to change taken by the principal. He was hired as an expert in individualized learning. Workshops and initial planning designed to move the school curricular offerings toward an individualized approach had already begun before the principal took the job. The principal continued these planning sessions and actively encouraged teachers to adopt his version of individualized learning. Often teachers reported they were told to develop complete objectives for their year courses in just a few days. The principal began an active campaign to sell his version of individualized learning to resisting staff members and to the larger educational community outside the school district.

By the end of the first year of operation, there were identifiable problems with the individualized learning program at Central High School. Essentially the individualized learning program did not change the curriculum, but altered the teaching methods so all subjects were objective based and students could finish a course early. Little effort was made actually to adapt individual learner style to individual teacher style or to alter the objectives to fit particular students. Few monitoring devices beyond the individual teacher were developed to check the progress of individual students. No change was made in the schedule so those students who finished a course early could move on to the next course. The schedule still ran on a semester basis. The failure to solve these problems meant many students received incompletes at the end of the semester or year. Respondents reported that discipline problems increased as students wandered the halls unchecked and teacher morale suffered.

Parents and staff members became further dissatisfied. Ultimately, a large group of parents, with the cooperation of some staff members, demanded that the board of education and the superintendent step in and rectify the situation. The controversy continued for several months as the principal used his own political power in the community to defend the program. The superintendent stepped in and forced an alteration of the program. The individualized learning program was curtailed, and very few courses were being offered using the individualized or objective based approach at the time of the

study. Despite setbacks, the principal was still convinced of the validity of his approach toward individualized learning and blamed others including the students for the failure of the program. He had prepared documents about the individualized learning program with heavy emphasis on the failure of the students to assume responsibility for learning. He did not specifically address the problems of the program with plans for how to remedy the problems, and was still encouraging staff members to adopt his individualized learning model.

The creation of the instructional supervisor role illustrated both the superintendent's and the principal's approach to change. The instructional supervisor role as a part of the administration emerged as a role during a strike in the district. The instructional supervisory role was formally defined by the superintendent and included new expectations not expected of department chairpersons. Despite these formal role definitions, respondent instructional supervisors complained of a lack of training and inservice that prepared them for their new role responsibilities. Additionally, they were supposed to be major decision makers, but found themselves forced into the role of conveyers of information from the top-level administrators to the staff and defenders of administrative policy sometimes developed without their input.

Teacher respondents complained of a lack of clarity about the instructional supervisory role and felt the instructional

supervisors often failed to represent fully teacher viewpoints to the top-level administrators. Some respondents believed the role was created to defuse teacher power by placing an administrator at the department level whose personal loyalties were no longer tied to the teaching staff. That perception may not have been accurate, but the instructional supervisors were concerned for their own individual welfare because they were evaluated and salaried based on personal MBOs established by the top-level administrators.

Very little evidence emerged that efforts were being made to rectify the concerns of the instructional supervisors or the teaching staff. Evidence did emerge that the instructional supervisors were expected to control staff criticisms and concerns. Additionally, the system for evaluation kept the instructional supervisors from organizing as a power group.

Provisions for curricular change were formally established by the adoption of a curriculum planning process. Despite the formal process with specific provisions for participation by numerous members of the organization, the process for curricular change was unevenly implemented. Some staff members reported that they were unclear as to what the curriculum planning process was or how it was to be used. Instructional supervisors reported different departments used the curriculum planning process differently. Some respondents reported that the whole process was so complicated that they simply did not bother developing new curricular ideas.



When new curricular proposals were developed, some proposals were not approved because of the political nature of the decision-making process. Some instructional supervisors refused to approve new courses because of the impact on their own department and not because the course was not needed. Instructional supervisors who proposed new courses knew they had to build political alliances with other instructional supervisors who possessed power if they wanted their new courses approved. At times, the instructional supervisors would approve a new course with a clear rationale of need identified only to have the principal refuse to support the approval because of his own philosophy or because he believed influential members of the educational community would object. Finally, once new courses were approved and implemented, there was very little evidence of systematic follow-up evaluations.

Change processes engaged in by the top-level administrators of the school failed to fulfill the stages and phases identified as necessary by researchers of change (Hage & Aiken, 1970; Klausmeier, Karges, & Krupa, 1977). The top-level administrators were perceived as having differing goals for their system than those held by many respondents in the system. The superintendent was perceived as being primarily concerned with economic stability, and the principal was perceived as being primarily dedicated to reinstituting the individualized learning program. Neither the principal nor the superintendent were seen as encouraging philosophical discussions

about innovative organizational changes or new curricula. Additionally, the top-level administrators were not perceived as responsive to solving problems created by those changes that had been introduced. Refinements that might have corrected problems with the individualized learning program were resisted, and inservice activities designed to clear up the confusion over the new role of instructional supervisor and the dynamics of the curriculum planning process were not developed at the district level or at the building level.

The data pointed to the possibility that there was a dynamic relationship between leadership, change, and decision making. The data suggested that the leaders of change may not be at the same phase of change as the followers and that the leaders may have to complete several earlier steps before the change is introduced to the followers. The data indicated that leaders must exhibit a particular leadership style at a particular phase and must expect and encourage a specific kind of involvement by the members at a particular phase of change. Further analysis of these possible arrangements will be done under grounded theory.

#### Administrative Processes

Various administrative processes are dynamically interrelated with all the aforementioned theory. Additionally, numerous authors have developed taxonomies of the processes of administration, and for the purposes of this study, the taxonomy developed by Chase

(1955) were applied to the data. Chase's taxonomy includes planning, allocating, stimulating, coordinating, and evaluating.

Definitions of the processes include the following (Chase, 1955, p. 17):

1. Planning: The attempt to control the future in the direction of the desired goals through decisions made on the basis of careful estimates of the probable consequences of possible courses of action.
2. Allocating: The procurement and allotment of human and material resources in accordance with the operating plan.
3. Stimulating: The motivation of behavior in terms of the desired outcomes.
4. Coordinating: The process of fitting together the various groups and operations into an integrated pattern of purpose-achieving work.
5. Evaluating: The continuous examination of the effects produced by the ways in which the other processes listed are performed.

Planning, allocating, stimulating, coordinating, and evaluating takes place within an organizational structure that is a social system. The administrator utilizes the processes in decision making and according to his or her own leadership style. The processes either promote or impede change within the social system.

The relevance of the processes to this study emerged as grounded theory from the site pointed to the interrelatedness of the processes and formal theory about administration. The use of the processes by the administration delineated other possible uses of the processes and pointed out dysfunctions resulting from that use. Discussions about the use of the various processes occurred throughout the analysis of the data as the data related to formal theoretical constructs. A summary of those remarks will follow and illustrate the use of the processes at Central High School.

The top-level administrators spent an extraordinarily lengthy amount of time on planning processes. Meetings with lower-level administrators were held every week. Meetings with faculty, parent, and student advisory forums were held monthly. Formal documents existed that spelled out the procedure for practically every contingency. Perceptions about the effectiveness of these planning processes were not complementary. Planning meetings were seen as unproductive because decisions were perceived as having already been made by the top-level administrators. Respondents believed their input was often ignored or dismissed unless they could develop a personal power base.

Procedures for allocating material and human resources were in place. Budgetary decisions were supposed to be shared by all those affected by the decisions. Human resource allocation procedures based on expertise were formally in place so decisions would



be made by the person most qualified. The formal processes for the allocation of material and human resources and the perceptions about what actually happened were different. The superintendent was seen as controlling most final budgetary decisions for the district, and the principal was seen as controlling most final budgetary decisions for the building. At the building level, the principal was perceived as using the budget to control the instructional supervisors and limit their criticisms. Separate budgetary meetings were held with lower level administrators, and decisions concerning the overall budget were not shared by the principal with the lower-level administrators. The principal could circumnavigate those with expertise in an area, and sometimes made decisions against the advice of the recognized expert.

The desired outcomes for the total school curriculum were not clearly identified. There was a written philosophy for the district, but many respondents did not know what the philosophy was. Each department seemed to go in its own direction, and little effort was seemingly done to motivate or coordinate the departments to work as a whole toward common goals. Departments competed for available resources, and the top-level administrators used this competition to control departmental decisions.

Procedures for evaluation formally existed for both personnel and curriculum and instruction. All administrators were evaluated on a management by objectives (MBO) system, and were supposed

to share in the development of appropriate objectives for their roles. Respondents reported, however, that their MBOs were sometimes altered and that the evaluation process was used to control criticisms and independent behavior. The evaluation process rewarded behavior that minimized managerial problems, and was not seen as rewarding behavior that maximized creativity. All curricular offerings were supposed to be evaluated by the instructional supervisor for the department and the associate principal. Respondents reported they did not know of any yearly evaluation, and said that they were not asked to participate in such evaluations.

#### Grounded Theory

Data analysis of an ethnographic research effort is a continuing process generated from the data observed and collected through rigorous research. Grounded propositions come from the data and are systematically worked out in relation to the data during the course of the research. The data analysis of this study used the four-step process described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) as the constant comparative method whereby categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems were generated; incidents applicable to each category, property, or hypothesis were compared; categories and properties were integrated; and the grounded theoretical statements were limited and then written as grounded propositions.

Once the post fieldwork stage of the research began, recurring themes were identified and propositions constructed with corresponding data presented to support these themes and propositions. At this point, a series of questions had to be answered. These questions, developed by Bogdan and Taylor (1975), included:

1. Do the data support the propositions?
2. Were the data statements solicited or unsolicited?
3. How much influence did the observers have in the setting?
4. Were the data statements made in the presence of others?
5. Are the data statements direct statements or inferences?
6. Who said what and did what?
7. Were the subjects telling the truth?

The grounded propositions that emerged from the site after such questions were considered presented specific information about the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors at the selected school. These grounded theoretical propositions were discussed in relation to existing formal theory and other related research. The data supported some existing formal theory and related research, identified needed modifications of some existing formal theory, and pointed out the need for new grounded theory in administration.

Modifications of Formal Theory and New Grounded Theory. Each formal theory provided insights about the school when the data from the site were compared with formal theory. In each case, the data

revealed possible modifications of the formal theoretical constructs, as well as new grounded theory.

Social systems theory.

Social systems theory as it relates to institutional role expectations and personal need-dispositions provided a useful means for examining individual roles within the school. Serious role conflicts and role ambiguities were found regarding the new instructional supervisory position. Questions arose about the expectations for this role from the viewpoint of teachers, instructional supervisors, and administrators. Differences in expectations for instructional supervisors led to some role ambiguity, which was compounded by the role incongruence between the role expectations for the principal and his fulfillment of the role based on his own need-dispositions. The principal used certain role ambiguities surrounding the instructional supervisory role to control specific administrative processes such as budget making, which also controlled those who were critical of the school. The result was the creation of a highly political organization. Individuals built power bases connected with their personal relationships with the principal. Still others allied themselves with these influentials to achieve their own goals. Such political maneuvering led to small group coalitions, individual isolation, personal identification with politically expedient power blocks rather than the system as a whole, and a relatively stable informal hierarchical structure for the organization based on both power and influence.



Social systems theory as it relates to institutional role expectations and personal need-dispositions should be able to account for the above phenomena. The impact of political maneuvering by the top-level administrators regarding role fulfillment is important. By using such strategies as bargaining, persuasion, coalition building, and power plays, a top-level administrator can alter subordinate role behavior regarding how one meets institutional role expectations and fulfills need-dispositions.

While the social systems theory explained the political implications of a social system as a part of the environment, data from the site emphasized the need for a consideration of the political implications within the system. The present model, as illustrated in Figure 4.2, did not explain this phenomenon.

The model in Figure 4.2 explains behavior in a mathematical formula as  $B = f(R \times P)$  meaning a given act or behavior in a school was the result of forces from the institutional expectations interacting with the individual need-dispositions (Hoy & Miskel, 1978). Researchers have modified the original model and acknowledged that when individuals are brought together in an organization, informal groups form to balance institutional expectations and individual needs, a climate is created, and intentions within this climate affect resulting social behavior.

To explain the political implications within the social system at the site, the researchers modified the social systems model.

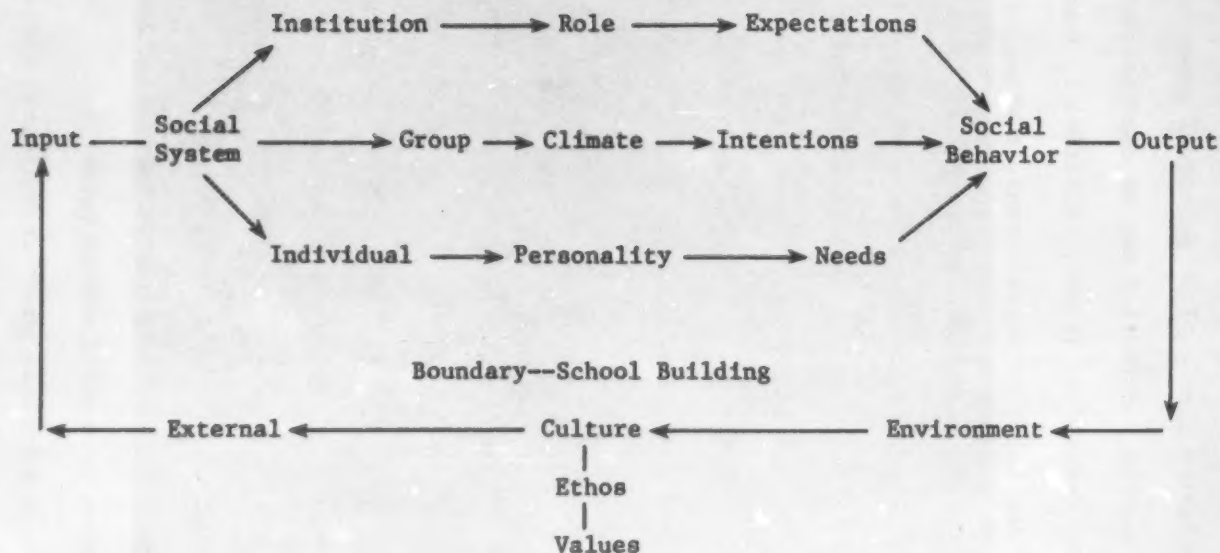


Figure 4.2. Structural Elements Using Getzels-Guba Systems Model with Abbott Adaptions.

Source: Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G., Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Practice. New York: Random House, 1978, pp. 40,45.

Political variables would fit into the model as shown in Figure 4.3.

The normative variables that explain political power include authority, power, and controls. Authority may be charismatic, resting on devotion to an individual leader; traditional, resting on accepted sanctity of the role; or legal/formal, resting on laws, rules, and regulations. Power may be defined as the right to govern, rule, or determine through coercion, persuasion, or jurisdiction. Controls may be defined as the ability to restrain or reserve individual behavior. When a role incumbent controls social behavior through the use of the power that he or she has because of formal authority, that incumbent is exerting political power to control social behavior.

The idiographic variables that explain political influence include status, influence, and affects. Status may be defined as the prestige that an individual earns in relation to others. Influence may be defined as the ability to sway others to accept a particular belief or action. Affects may be defined as the ability to produce a change in action, thought, or behavior of another person. When a person affects social behavior through the use of influence he or she has earned as a person, that individual also exerts political influence to control social behavior.

Individuals who use political power or political influence or both within a social system produce particular social behaviors

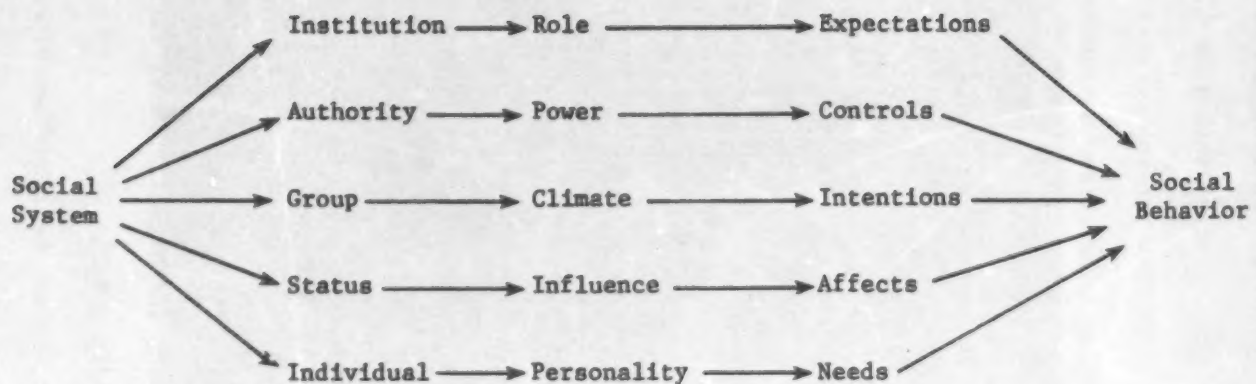


Figure 4.3. Political Dimensions of the Social Systems Model.



including bargaining, coalition building, lobbying and prapagandizing, and other types of power plays. Systems wherein political power and political influence are evident produce outputs that are sometimes judged as rational, and at other times as nonrational, partially complete in terms of institutional role expectations, and partially complete in terms of the fulfillment of personal need-disposition.

The expanded social systems model with the added dimensions on both the normative and idiographic dimensions explained much of the social behavior at the school. Leader behavior based on the use of political power and subordinate behavior based on the use of political influence affected the organizational structure, decision-making processes, and change processes of the school. The use of political power by the top-level administrators was coupled with particular leadership styles and created critical modifications in the formal organizational structure and decision-making processes. Those modifications also pointed to the need for modifications in other formal theories. The political implications of leader behavior directly affected the organizational structure of the school and identified new relationships among the organizational variables.

Weberian ideal bureaucratic model.

The organizational structure of the school examined did exhibit a division of labor and specialization; an impersonal orientation; a hierarchy of authority, rules and regulations; and a

career orientation. Despite the formal structure, however, the Weberian model of an ideal bureaucracy (1947) was not achieved because of the following reasons:

1. Even though a division of labor and specialized roles existed, many decisions, particularly financial ones, were still made by the top administrators instead of specialists.
2. Individual specialists altered their role behavior and built political coalitions with other administrators or outside agencies to fulfill their personal goals.
3. Individual specialists unable to build political coalitions often felt isolated and unable to fulfill their role expectations or individual need-dispositions.
4. Political variables interacting with the organizational variable of hierarchy of authority meant those at the bottom of the hierarchy were expected to follow the chain of command, while those with political power and those with political influence were able to ignore it.
5. Rules and regulations were unevenly enforced and confusion about who was expected to make a decision resulted.

The above conclusions also relate to the leadership behavior of the top-level administrators. If Weber's ideal bureaucratic model does not produce the anticipated end result of an efficient organization, then the explanation may be related to the formal or informal impact of leadership behavior. When leadership behavior

is political, such behaviors as bargaining, coalition building, and power plays result. Then the organizational outcomes reflect the political climate and may not necessarily be efficient.

Leadership styles of administrators affected the organizational postulates and corollaries stated by Hage (1965) in the following ways:

1. When leadership consideration behavior is low, and decisions are made through a political process, then high centralization does not lead to high production.
2. When the chain of command must be followed from the bottom up but not from the top down, then high stratification does not lead to high production.
3. When specialists must compete politically, build coalitions, and spend time persuading others of the rightness of their specialized knowledge, then high formalization does not lead to high efficiency.
4. When an organization exhibits high centralization, high formalization, and high stratification, then high complexity does not lead to high job satisfaction.
5. When an organization exhibits high centralization, high formalization, and high stratification, then high complexity does not lead to high adaptiveness within the organization.

The leadership style and the corresponding functioning of the decision-making process was not taken into account by Hage (1965) when postulating his seven propositions and 21 corollaries about the relationships between organizational means and ends. Instead, the organizational means-end relationship was affected by both leadership style and decision-making processes. Despite formalized efforts at building an organizational structure wherein a high degree of complexity existed and specialists at the lowest level were to be involved in the decision-making process, political leadership styles of administrators limited the effectiveness of the organization and affected adaptiveness and job satisfaction. Additionally, situations developed wherein respondents perceived that some individuals and programs were favored over others and thus acquired undue political influence. Administrative specialists were forced to alter their role behavior and build political power bases through bargaining, persuasion, and coalition building to fulfill their institutional role expectations and personal needs-dispositions. Such alterations limited the effectiveness of the organization and therefore affected both productivity and efficiency.

#### Decision theory.

The analysis of the decision-making processes at the school was based on the rational decision-making model. This decision-making process should provide opportunities for all interested



parties to be involved in providing information about decisions, helping formulate alternatives, and suggesting specific alternatives. Moreover, administrative specialists were supposed to be involved formally in actually making decisions.

In reality, decision making at the school corresponded with the bureaucratic politics model of decision making proposed by Allison (1971). He used the work of several others (Lindbloom, 1965; Schilling, 1962) to develop a bureaucratic politics decision-making paradigm that the data from the research site tended to support. The bureaucratic politics model was useful for analyzing data from the research site.

First, the basic unit of analysis of the model views bureaucratic action as a political result. At the school studied, the decisions and actions of the bureaucracy were intraorganizational political resultants in that what happened was not chosen as a solution to a problem but as a result of compromise, conflict, and confusion among officials with diverse interests and unequal influence. Decisions were political in that the activity from which decisions and actions emerged was best characterized as bargaining along regular channels among individual members of the bureaucracy.

No articulated philosophy of education guided the decision-making process at the school. Administrators who had political power and personal influence often used their positions to influence decisions toward their personal goals or needs. Other administrators who did not have personal influence were forced to

bargain with those who held such power. Final decisions were often agreed to by the primary decision makers, for political or economic reasons connected to their power positions. The rational decision-making processes provided a regularized channel for bargaining, coalition building, and power plays by those holding the most power or influence.

Second, the bureaucratic political decision-making model identified four interrelated questions to be answered including: who played; what determined each player's stance; what determined each player's relative influence; and how the decision-making process combined players' stances, influences, and moves to yield decisions and actions. At the school, the decision-making structure was established to involve a large number of people in decision making. Forums were established to gather input from parents, students, and teachers. Additionally, each department was supposed to include teachers in making decisions affecting the department. The three administrative levels, instructional supervisors, administrative coordinators, and the administrative team met regularly and were supposedly involved in decision making. Even so, final decisions were still controlled by the top administrators. Despite the large number of individuals supposedly involved in the decision-making process, top administrators gave extraordinary powers to a small group of supervisors, coordinators, and teachers through personal daily contact with them and willingness to listen to their

opinions and preferences. These individuals used their influence with the top administrators to achieve their own goals in exchange for exhibiting support for the administrators' preferred goals. Others, nominally with the same titles and roles, were less influential and were able to achieve their goals by allying themselves with other select members.

The stance taken by each decision maker in the organization was colored by his or her personal position in the organization. The lack of a clearly articulated educational philosophy meant that decisional issues were not considered because of their relationship to an overall educational program, but because of how they would enhance individuals and their departments. Decisions and actions were taken, and advanced or impeded the relative power of each individual based on how successful he or she was in achieving the goals and desires of his or her department.

As in many schools, the principal determined who had power and who did not. Having the formal authority and responsibility for the operation of the school, he controlled organizational resources and used that control to affect the decisional stances of subordinate administrators. Information about budgetary matters was tightly controlled and shared with a small cadre of confidants who acquired power through their relationship with the principal and through the perception of others that they held favored positions. Some of these favored individuals used both their actual

and perceived relationship to their advantage to persuade administrators toward their goals and needs.

Individual stances, personal influence, and actual actions combined to produce bureaucratic decisions, and politics was the mechanism. Each person in the decision-making process bargained, formed coalitions, and tried to persuade, bluff, or threaten other persons in the decision-making process to influence the principal's decisions toward that individual's conception of schoolwide needs. The principal used political maneuverings of other individuals, as well as his own power, to control the organization and keep the subordinate decision-makers from uniting against him in any effective way.

The decision-making process at the school somewhat supported the bureaucratic politics model. Problems emerged as a result of the decision-making process taking on the characteristics of such a model. First, solutions to problems were not discovered after detached analysis, but emerged as the acceptable solutions to those with power and influence after the bargaining process was completed. Second, because information control was a weapon, decision makers often acted without adequate knowledge about the problem, thus agreeing on some decisions that those with the power or influence desired to have made. Third, communication between various administrators at different levels and between administrators at the same



level was limited and often served to enhance the power and influence of the few who could go directly to top-level administrators. Finally, decisions were agreed to or opposed because of the relative advantage to the individual instead of the overall needs of the organization.

If decision-making processes in a school organization are to be understood, then decision-making models must be expanded to include an analysis of what happens to a system when supposedly rational decisions are, in reality, political. The six-step rational decision-making process was directly affected at each stage. In identifying problems, administrators and others considered their own values, power, influence, and particular political coalitions as important determiners of how a problem was defined. In formulating and weighing alternatives, decision makers weighed political and personal consequences more than they weighed educational outcomes. Decision choices were made through bargaining, coalition building or power plays. Implementation and evaluation of a decision were uneven processes based on how the decision would affect the political balance within the organization. An accurate description of the decision-making process at the school was offered by Baldrige (1975, p. 386), who said:

Decisions are not really made; instead, they come unstuck, are reversed, get unmade during the execution, or lose their impact as powerful political groups fight them. In real life, decisions go round and round in circles, and the best one can hope for in the political battle is a temporary win.

### Leadership.

There is a dynamic relationship between leadership stages and leadership styles. Leadership must be examined not only in terms of the individual preferences and positions of the leader but also in terms of the interactive processes between the leader and his or her followers and the general processes used to sustain purpose and commitment within the organization.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) have examined forces in the manager, forces in the subordinates, and forces in the situations. Leaders have to be aware of their own value system, assess their confidence in their subordinates, analyze their own leadership styles, and examine their own feelings of security in uncertain situations. Leaders also have to assess subordinates' needs for independence, readiness to assume responsibility for decision making, tolerance for ambiguity, interest in the problem, understanding and identification with the goals of the organization, knowledge and experience, and expectations about shared decision making. Leaders also must understand the type of organization in terms of its size, traditions, and norms; problems in terms of whether they are complex, routine, objective, or subjective; and time needs to raise employee motivation, to increase the readiness of subordinates to accept change, to improve the quality of decisions, to develop teamwork and morale, and to aid the individual development of employees.

Top-level administrators set the tone for the school through their leadership styles and their approaches to the above factors within the school. Their leadership style was a factor in determining the commitment of subordinates to the organization, defining subordinate roles and activities, and contributing to subordinate behavior. The combination of the autocratic-legalistic style of the superintendent and the personal-political style of the principal created an atmosphere where change was very difficult.

Leadership style, leader behavior, organizational variables, and the decision-making processes supported the work of Fox and Staw (1979) who hypothesized that administrators may go beyond the passive distortion of adverse consequences to rationalize a behavioral error. A high-level decision maker who had suffered a setback might try to recoup his or her losses through an even greater commitment of resources to the same course of action. They proposed a model of the escalation process as shown in Figure 4.4.

This model assumes that negative consequences initiate the escalation process. When setbacks are objectively severe and have subjective meaning for the individual, they probably trigger attributions of responsibility. The individual then searches for and is confronted with both exonerating and implicating information. If the individual feels personally responsible for negative consequences, then there should exist motivation to justify past decisions. Motivation to justify one's behavior is moderated by the

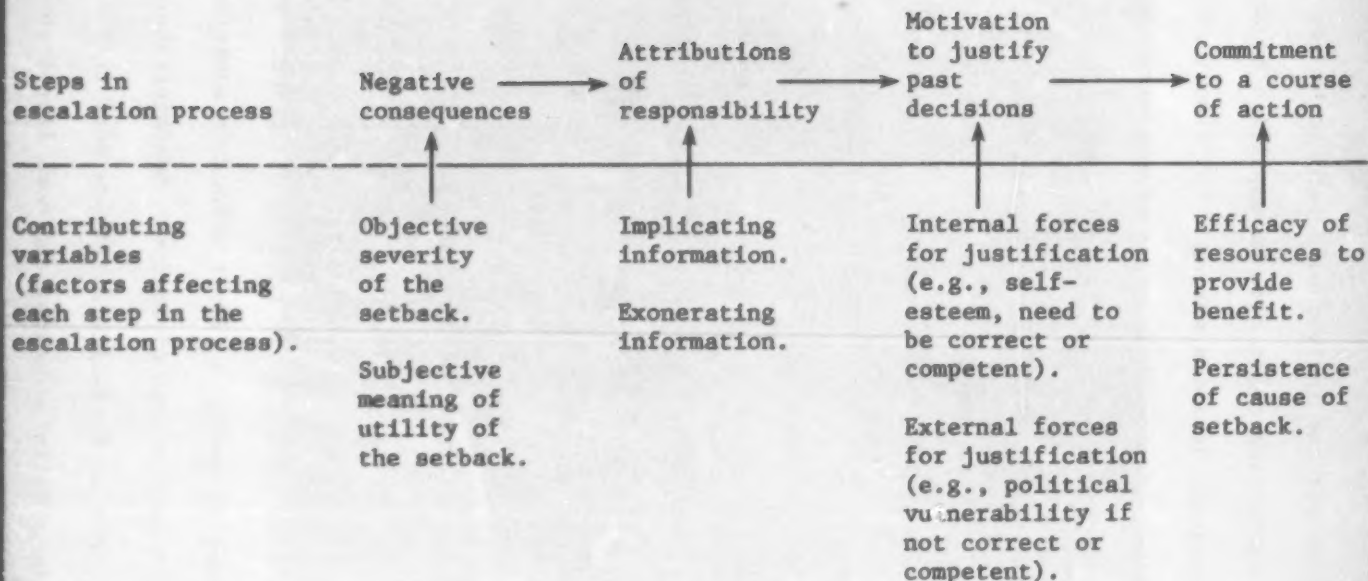


Figure 4.4. A Model of the Escalation Process.

Source: Fox, F. V., & Staw, B. M. The trapped administrator: Effects of job insecurity and policy resistance upon commitment to a course of action. Administrative Science Quarterly, September 1979, 24(3), 452.



strength of self-esteem and the individual's need to be correct or competent, but such motivation could also be amplified by any external demands for accurate decision making. Commitment to a course of action is seen as a joint function of motivation to justify past decisions in view of relevant objective information.

When applied to organizational settings, the model suggests that individuals may be motivated to prove to others that they were not wrong in an earlier decision so as to avoid the imposition of sanctions by others if errors are detected. Administrators are often forced to defend failing programs, and such defense may stem as much from the need for political survival as from the need to bolster self-esteem. Administrators may find themselves trapped into committing more and more funds, time, or energy to a failing program to protect their political power bases.

In a simulation experiment Fox and Staw (1979) demonstrated that job insecurity and policy resistance affected individual commitment to a course of action. High job insecurity and high policy resistance led to leader behavior wherein increased money, time, and effort were invested toward prior courses of action. Political vulnerability was seen as having a direct effect on administrative commitment to a particular course of action. Administrators worried about keeping their jobs or fending off critics were less likely to be flexible in their decision making and more likely to increase

their commitment to previously chosen policy and to defend inflexibly their previous positions.

As Fox and Staw (1979) hypothesized, the principal of Central High School persistently insisted that his decisions concerning individualized learning were correct and he continued to advocate this program. Throughout the history of the individualized learning program, he resisted efforts to change or modify his particular program and became increasingly inflexible and political in his decision-making behavior. The principal became highly political and willing to exert his power and influence to control the organization. Others in the organization had to understand the political nature of the principal's behavior and respond accordingly or they would not be able to achieve their role expectations or fulfill their need-dispositions.

Because political power and influence affect the process of decision making and determine the kinds of commitments leaders make from the start, the model proposed by Fox and Staw (1979) must be curvilinear. Political implications affect an administrator's commitment to a particular course of action, but his or her own political leadership style and uses of power and influence affect the political impacts.

Educational leadership may be far more political than previously thought to be. If a leader is to fulfill the prerequisites of Lipham's (1973) definition, he or she may need to take into

account questions about his or her own authority, power, and controls and determine his or her and others' status, influence, and affects on the social system. Failure to fulfill the various stages of leadership identified by Lipham and Hoeh (1974) may have more to do with failures to read the political climate correctly than previously suspected. Knowing where one stands on an issue, knowing where others stand on an issue, knowing what action may be necessary in case of particular political configurations, and knowing how to cut one's losses may be the determining factors for those leaders who wish to function as change agents and fulfill the leadership role.

#### Change theory.

If the primary role of administrators is to foster changes that will enhance teaching and learning in the local school (Lipham, 1979), then a comprehensive theory of change must be understood and incorporated into administrative action. Present theories about change are inadequate. Instead, a new explanatory construct for leaders of change is needed. The steps of the change process for leaders of change may differ from the steps in the change process taken by the members. A change theory that might more accurately explain the data would be as that shown in Figure 4.5.

Researchers have recognized the importance of leadership behavior in the change process, but they have universally assumed leaders and members to be at the same stage or phase of change.

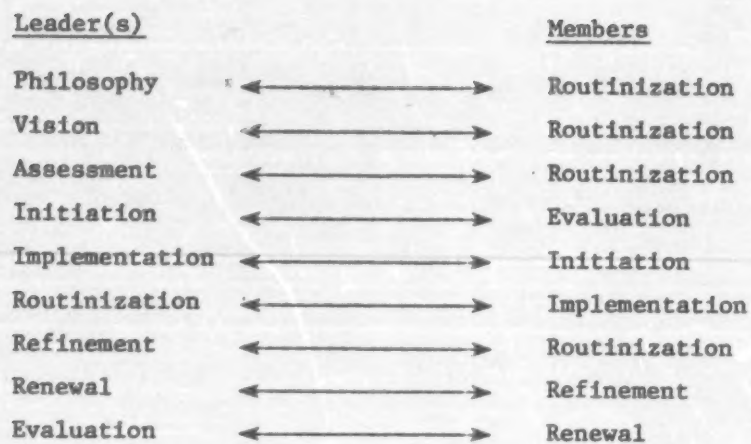


Figure 4.5. Phases of Leader-Member Change Relations.



Instead, there may be significant differences in the stages of change engaged in by leaders as necessary before the change process is begun by members. First, leaders must have a philosophy of education identified and internalized. Leaders must know what they have in mind as an outcome of the educational process and understand the implications of that outcome. Leaders give substance to their philosophy by having a vision of symbols, ideologies, languages, beliefs, rituals, or myths that are incorporated into a rational and tangible plan for the organization in terms of structural and technical needs. This vision held by the leader must succeed in evoking emotions and moving others to action by defining roles, activities, challenges, and purposes for the members of the organization and by creating patterns of meanings for the organization (Pettigrew, 1979).

Before any initial actions can be taken, the leader must be clear about his or her philosophical position and have a clear vision of needs. Then, he or she must assess the organization. This assessment implies understanding the various experiences of those who make up the organization, determining the skills and needs of those in the organization, and evaluating the positions of organizational members regarding any given issue. This assessment includes determining who in the system has power or influence, and how those people will stand on a given issue. This assessment results in developing a clear agenda for change toward new directions.

This initial assessment leads to evaluation. This evaluation of the organization and the individuals within includes determining that the system is or is not accomplishing goals, as well as changing the goals of the system. Those changed goals grow out of a philosophical base with a vision of change that has been tempered by an assessment of the realities of the social system in terms of needs, experiences, and political power and influences of those in the system. Leaders without a well articulated philosophy tend to become quite engrossed in the political maneuverings of the social system. Moreover, leaders who fail to understand the political implications of changed goals may also fail as change agents.

At this point, the leader is ready to begin an initiation stage of change. His or her initiation change is concerned with needed decisions and needed solutions to anticipated problems in altering the goals of the system. One must initiate behavior to convince the followers to evaluate the system, determine the deficiencies of the system, and see the need for new goals. At this point, the leader must initiate inservice programs to help members acquire the necessary understandings, skills, and attitudes to attempt the program.

With the induction of the members into the process, a dynamic interrelationship between leadership and followership is set in. Leadership style becomes a critical variable in determining the success or failure of the change. Members will respond to

leadership if they are convinced of the philosophical position, understand new goals, or feel that their input has some impact on the change program. The stages and styles of leadership relate to change phases as shown in Figure 4.6. As members evaluate the system, they must know the future directions for the organization set by the leader. In addition, they must be supported in their efforts by the leader.

As the leader moves toward implementation, the members accept leadership toward new goals and begin to initiate change toward the new goals and roles. The leader implements the new goals by integrating the innovation into the organization through scheduling, planning, and coordinating the initiation efforts of the members, and by encouraging mutually satisfying interpersonal relationships to solve either anticipated or unanticipated problems.

The implementation stage of the change process for the leader and the initiation stage of the change process for the members is a crucial step. At this point, leaders must recognize legitimate resistance to the implementation of a new goal or program and must understand political ramifications of the change. If leaders meet that resistance by relying too much on their political power, then their leadership may not be accepted. Additionally, if leaders meet resistance by relying too much on their philosophical positions while ignoring the political elements, then leadership may not be

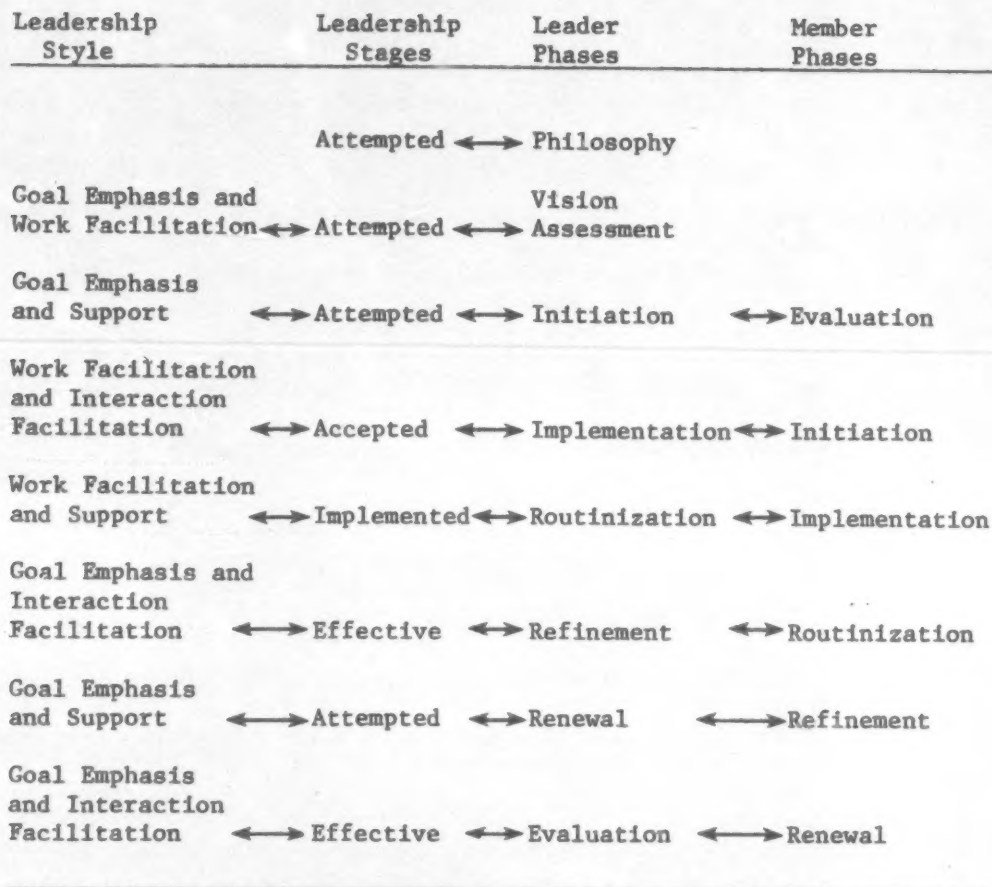


Figure 4.6. The Interaction of Leadership Styles, Stages, and Change.



accepted. If the members fail to accept the leader's efforts at this stage, then they may not proceed with the change process.

As the leader moves toward routinization, the members begin to implement the new goals or innovations. The leader already has begun to think of the change as a needed alteration and is fully integrating the change within the routines of the organization. The members are implementing the change at their individual levels, and they need vitally important supportive behavior from the leader as they wrestle with anticipated and unanticipated problems resulting from implementing the change.

Next, the leader incorporates the unanticipated problems encountered by the members into refinement efforts and provides goal emphasis and interaction facilitation for the members as they routinize the change. The leader provides for staff development programs to help members master their new roles and develop the necessary skills to routinize the change. The effectiveness of the leader depends on how well refinements are carried out and how quickly the new goals become routine.

The leader must next turn attention to renewal efforts. New people are often added to the organizations and must be trained to fulfill their roles. Feedback from the members must be utilized to determine effective ways to reach the desired goals. The leader must support the members as they refine their original efforts and solve situational problems related to the new goals.

The final step in the change cycle finds the leader evaluating the newly instituted goals and judging whether the renewal efforts of the members will be adequate to accomplish the new goals effectively, or whether the new goals need to be revised again.

The change process is a dynamic interrelationship between leadership style, stages, and the members. Leaders must strive to give purpose to the organization and to generate and sustain commitment from the members. Leaders must tap the vested interests of those in the organization and convince them their interests will be better served by altering the goals of the organization in a philosophically or operationally new direction. Leaders must anticipate and build in rewards for individuals, anticipate possible problems, determine alternative solutions, and adjust to unanticipated problems identified by the members. If leaders can fulfill these aspects of the change process, then the members will be likely to endorse his or her vision of the organization and turn that vision into substantive change.

The above models of change gave a comprehensive picture of the change efforts at the school. The differing goals held by the top-level administrators and the members pointed to an initial change stage by the leaders done before the involvement of the members. The differing goals held by administrators and the resistance of the administrators to suggested modifications of their goals pointed out their inadequate assessment of the organization

and the people within it. The reluctance of the administrators to accept member input in the latter stages of the change process pointed out the dynamic, interrelationship between leadership style and the change process. The seeming failure of the specific changes relating to individualized learning, the new instructional supervisor role, and the curriculum planning process pointed out that leaders cannot ignore members in the process. Leaders articulate clear goals, encourage follower input toward fulfilling the goals, and support members' efforts toward goal attainment to obtain implementation and commitment.

The relationship between leadership and member followership pointed to an interactive model combining leadership styles, leadership stages, change phases, and decision involvement. At the various phases of change, relationships emerged concerning who was involved, the frequency of their involvement, and their level of involvement. The model of the relationship between leadership, change, and participative decision making is shown in Figure 4.7.

In addition to interest and expertise, people are also involved in decision making because they represent constituent interests. For example, the instructional supervisors were involved as the representatives of their particular departments. Often they were requested to bring up issues in which they personally had no interest or expertise. When presenting such issues, they were expected to be involved despite their lack of interest or expertise.

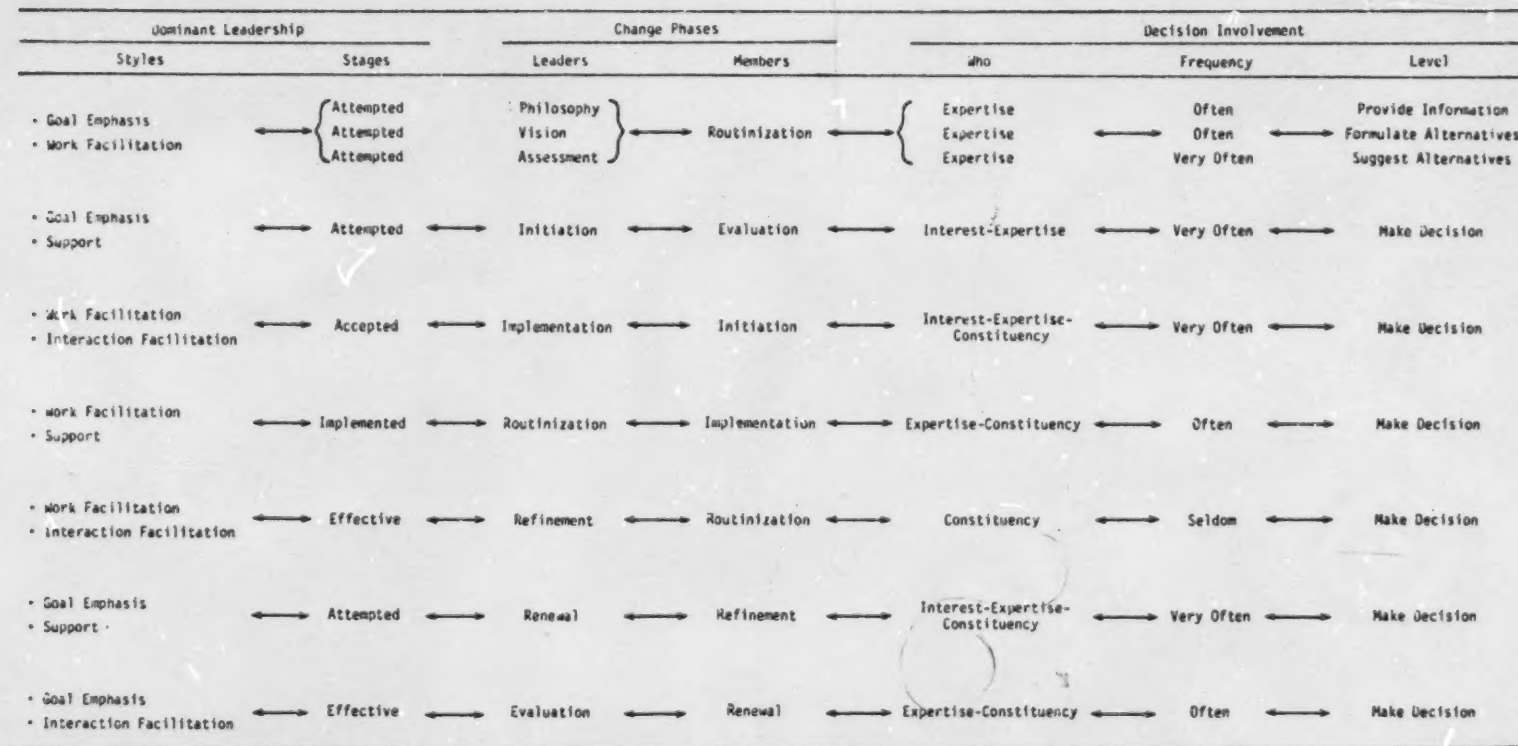


Figure 4.7. The Model of the Relationship Between Leadership, Change, and Decision-Making Process.



Member endorsement and commitment is obtained through decision involvement. Leaders encourage ownership of various changes through carefully managing the decision involvement of the members. Organizational changes falter or fail when those who wish to be involved because of interest, expertise, or constituent representativeness are not involved at the proper frequency or level.

In the early phases of change, the leader seeks out experts to aid in developing a philosophy, a vision, or in doing an assessment. The leader seeks information from experts, seeks the aid of experts in formulating possible alternatives, and seeks advice from experts in determining particular alternatives. When the leader moves to the initiation phase and encourages the members to begin the evaluation phases, he or she often involves those with interest or expertise in making the necessary decisions. As the leader moves to the implementation phase and the members move to the initiation phase, then those with interest, expertise, and constituencies are involved in making the necessary decisions. Next, as the leader moves to the routinization phase and the members move to the implementation phase, then those with expertise and constituent interests are often involved in making decisions. As the leader then moves to the refinement phase and the members move to the routinization phase, then only representative leaders meet periodically to make the necessary decisions.

Finally, the leader moves to the renewal phase and the members to the refinement phase. Then, those with constituencies, interest, and expertise are frequently involved in making the needed decisions. Subsequently, as the renewal efforts of the leader are incorporated into renewal efforts by the members of the system, and as the leader moves to the evaluation phase, both those representing constituencies and those with expertise continue to be frequently involved in making the necessary decisions.

Leadership styles and leadership stages also dynamically interrelate with member involvement in decision making. When the leader is initiating change, he or she must emphasize new goals and be supportive of those members with the interest and expertise, or otherwise their evaluations of the leader's attempts may be negative. Next, as members accept the leader's directions and begin initiating the change, the leader must facilitate both the work and the interactive relationships of those representing their constituencies, those with expertise, and those with interest.

Members having interest and expertise and those who represent constituencies then begin implementing the change and need careful planning, coordination, and support from the leader. Then, as the effective change is routinized, the constituent representatives meet with the leader and need an emphasis on goals and aid in developing close working relationships.

When the leader begins attempting renewal efforts and those constituent representatives, experts, and interested members begin refining the change, the leader must again call attention to goals and support the refinement efforts of members. Finally, as the leader evaluates present goals and pushes for further change, he or she must facilitate a close working relationship between the constituent representatives and the experts as they begin the renewal phase of change.

This model of the relationship between leadership, change, and decision making revealed several dysfunctional change efforts attempted by the leadership of the school examined. For example, some problems with the individualized learning program emerged because of initially incomplete assessment efforts by the administrators. Individualized learning as a concept was defined differently by administrators, teachers, and citizens. Problems resulting from the differing definitions were not solved. Instead, the leaders seemingly bypassed the evaluation and initiation phases of the members and jumped to the implementation phase of the change process. The attempted leadership efforts were, therefore, never completely accepted by the members, and change was never totally implemented, routinization of the change was never reached, and an ensuing political battle resulted. A leadership style appropriate to each particular change phase therefore became impossible.

The proposed model explained the relationships between leader behavior, the change process, and decision making for systems with rational participative decision making. The formal organizational structure of the school was designed to fulfill the dynamic interrelationships and to provide for participation for the members of the system in the decision-making process. The perceptions of the members about the administrators' leadership actions and styles caused the change process to get out of phase, therefore limiting the decision involvement of the members.

This chapter contained a presentation of formal theory about administrative organization, processes, and behaviors, and an analysis of the data by comparing the grounded theoretical statements from Chapter III with existing formal theory. The six sections of the chapter were devoted to social systems theory, organization theory, decision theory, leadership theory, change theory, and the administrative processes. The final section identified grounded theory with modifications offered to existing theory, and new theories presented if existing theories did not fully explain the data.



## CHAPTER V

## OVERVIEW, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter consists of three sections. The first section gives a brief overview of the study. The next section provides a summary of the major conclusions and related implications for practice. The final section gives some directions for future research in educational administration.

## Overview of the Study

This study consisted of an ethnographic case study of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in a selected senior high school that had attempted a program of individualized schooling. Field methodology, including in-depth interviews, observations, and document analysis, was used to describe and explain the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in the selected school, as well as to generate grounded theory about those phenomena. Grounded theoretical propositions were developed to support formal theory, to identify needed modifications of existing formal theory, and to suggest new theory about administrative organization, processes, and behaviors.

The conceptual and theoretical constructs that emerged as important included social systems theory (Getzels, Lipham, & Campbell, 1968) with emphasis on the congruence of role expectations

and need-dispositions and the resulting social behavior; organization theory with emphasis on Weber's (1947) ideal bureaucracy and Hage's (1965) axiomatic theory of complex organizations; decision theory (Eye, Lipham, & Netzer, 1975; Lipham, 1974, 1976; Mohrman et al., 1978; Moyle, 1977; Speed, 1979; Watkins, 1978) with emphasis on decision content, stages, and involvement; leadership theory (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974) with an emphasis on the stages of leadership and leadership style; change theory with an emphasis on Hage and Aiken's (1970) stages of change and Klausmeier, Krupa, and Karges' (1977) implementation phases of the change process; and the administrative processes with emphasis on Chase's (1955) model of planning, allocating, stimulating, coordinating, and evaluating.

Social systems theory (Getzels, Lipham, & Campbell, 1968) provided a useful framework for examining the school as a social system. Questions emerged concerning the normative dimension and particularly the administrative fulfillment of institutional role expectations. Some conflicts emerged over the congruence between role expectations and need-dispositions of the members of the system that pointed to new political power and influence dimensions of social systems theory.

The organization of the school illustrated the Weberian model of bureaucracy (Weber, 1947) and axiomatic organizational theory (Hage, 1965). While the school appeared to illustrate characteristics of an ideal bureaucracy, further analysis indicated

certain limitations of Weber's (1947) ideal bureaucracy as an explanatory construct when decision making in the organization is quite political and the chain of command was adhered to from the bottom up, but not from the top down. Hage's (1965) axiomatic theory of organizations with emphasis on means and outcome variables was a useful explanation of the organization when related to leadership style and the political style of decision making at the school.

Decision making in the school followed the rational decision-making model and was analyzed according to decision content, decision stages, and decision involvement. On closer analysis, however, a bureaucratic politics model (Allison, 1971) of decision making within a formal structure emerged as an appropriate explanation of decision making. A significant discrepancy emerged between the perceived decision-making style of the administrators and the desired decision-making style of the staff and other members of the educational community. Decision-making style emerged as an important consideration of the leadership style of the administrators.

For this study, leadership stages including attempted leadership, accepted leadership, implemented leadership, and effective leadership (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974) and leadership style including behavior contributing to goal emphasis, work facilitation, support, and interaction facilitation (Bowers & Seashore, 1966) emerged as important explanatory constructs of the leadership behavior at the



school. When the leadership behavior of the top-level administrators is compared to the taxonomies of leadership stages and leadership styles, a picture emerges that supports some aspects of the trapped administrator syndrome identified by Fox and Staw (1979), and the political nature of the leadership efforts emerge as an important aspect of change in the school.

Questions concerning the provisions for change established by the top-level administrators emerged and were examined using Hage and Aiken's (1970) stages of innovative processes including evaluation, initiation, implementation, and routinization and Klausmeier, Karges, and Krupa's (1977) phases of change including awareness, commitment, changeover, refinement, and renewal. The analysis pointed to the possibility of change phases engaged in by the top-level administrators at a different point in time and at a different rate than the other members of the educational community. The analysis also suggested a dynamic interrelationship between leadership, change, and decision making.

The administrative processes engaged in by the administration of the school were analyzed using Chase's (1955) taxonomy including planning, allocating, stimulating, coordinating, and evaluating. The analysis of the administrative processes illustrated the dynamic interrelationship between the processes and leadership style, and then the impact of the processes on the organizational structure, the decision-making processes, and change efforts.



The study was conducted in one selected senior high school chosen because it met at least five of the ten comprehensive objectives of ICE/Secondary schools as defined by Klausmeier (1979).

An extensive national search was conducted, and this school emerged as one of three exemplary high schools sufficiently engaged in the comprehensive objectives to merit study. Perceptions of the school by the members of the system illustrated an analysis of the school as measured against their expectations for the school. Despite perceiving that the school sometimes fell short of their expectations, respondents believed that the school was an exemplary high school when compared with other high schools. Data collection procedures included interviews, observations, and document analysis of pertinent literature about the school. Companion studies (Brittenham, 1980; Zimman, 1980) were conducted in two other high schools geographically dispersed across the country and offer comprehensive analyses of the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in two other selected senior high schools.

#### Conclusions and Implications for Practice

This section presents the major conclusions that emerged from an analysis of the data. A discussion follows each conclusion. The conclusions are organized around the major theoretical constructs including social systems theory, organization theory, decision theory, leadership theory, and change theory. Conclusions are also offered concerning administrative processes. The

conclusions are the result of looking at one school in one district and may or may not be generalizable beyond the selected research site. Some implications for practice follow each major conclusion.

#### Conclusion A

When new institutional roles are created, role expectations and role definitions should be carefully delineated; individuals should be chosen for the roles based on expertise; and inservice training should be carried out to inform the staff, the occupants of new roles, and other administrators about the new role expectations.

Discussion. When administrators create new managerial roles and increase the expectations and responsibilities for the role, they should anticipate controversy or confusion. The controversy may be heightened if the former role was tied to the teaching staff and the new role is tied to the administration. Administrators can alleviate some of the controversy by carefully defining the role, by ensuring the role participants appropriate involvement in decision making, and by carefully selecting and training those chosen to fulfill the role.

#### Implications.

1. New institutional roles affecting the administration and the staff, as well as the students, must be developed with the cooperation and the knowledge of the total staff.
2. Institutional expectations for the new role must be shared with all members of the educational community and must

reflect an articulated organizational purpose understood by the total educational community.

3. Individuals selected for the new institutional role must have the proper preparation and orientation for the duties and must receive inservice training to update and upgrade the necessary skills for the new role.

#### Conclusion B

A well developed understanding concerning the need for congruence between the role expectations held for administrators by the members of the educational community and the role expectations and need-dispositions held by the administrators should be developed.

Discussion. Conflicts can emerge in schools when the members of the educational community hold differing role expectations for the administrators than the self-expectations held by the administrators. When members expect certain behaviors, such as visibility, access, instructional leadership, consideration and support, acceptance of constructive criticism, and active problem solving and the particular administrator assumes that others can fulfill those expectations, then incongruence concerning the role will result.

#### Implications.

1. The principal occupies the primary leadership role within the school and sets the tone for the entire school organization. As the primary leader, the principal should assess the

leadership expectations of the school community, and either fulfill those expectations or help the school community to develop different expectations for the leadership role.

2. The principal should assume primary responsibility for the smooth operation of the social system and should take the necessary steps to ensure all members of the educational community perceive that the bureaucratic structure functions to meet their needs and solve their problems.

#### Conclusion C

Social systems theory as presently stated (Getzels, Lipham & Campbell, 1968) should be modified and should have a new political dimension added to explain the political nature of the social system.

Discussion. Present models of the social systems theory assume political influences on the social system from the environment, but do not account for the political behavior outputs resulting from activities in the social system. When administrators have authority, use power, and exert control over the behaviors of those in the social system as a means of political control, then individual members who recognize the political nature of the leadership will determine means of acquiring status, developing influence, and affecting the behavior of others. Individuals may acquire such status, influence, and affect the behavior of others by personal persuasion, bargaining, coalition building, and power plays.



### Implications.

1. In social systems where political power and influence are important dimensions, results are produced that are sometimes rational, sometimes nonrational, partially complete in terms of institutional role expectations, and partially complete in terms of personal need-dispositions.
2. Outputs evident in a social system where political power and influence are important dimensions include such behaviors as persuasion, lobbying, propagandizing, bargaining, coalition building, and power plays.
3. When individuals with interest and expertise spend a large amount of time determining who are the powerful and influential members of the organization, then efficiency and effectiveness of the individuals are affected.
4. The political implications of leadership behavior directly affect the organizational structure and modify the relationships of the organizational variables.

### Conclusion D

In organizations where there are characteristics of an ideal bureaucracy, the expected efficiency of the organization will be affected when the hierarchy of authority and the rules and regulations are followed from the bottom up, but sometimes not followed from the top down.

Discussion. In school organizations that exhibit a division of labor and specialization, impersonal orientation, hierarchy of authority, rules and regulations, and a career orientation and the administrators expect the chain of command to be followed, then those lower in the hierarchy should perceive that the administrators also follow the chain of command. When those lower in the hierarchy perceive that the administrators can and do impose decisions without involving specialists and without following their advice, then the result for those who make up the system is uncertainty about who can or cannot make a decision.

Implications.

1. The hierarchy of authority and the rules and regulations should be clearly understood and consistently applied.
2. Those with the expertise should make the decision without having to spend undue amounts of time developing political power and influence.
3. Administrators should respect the chain of command and limit their involvement in the bureaucratic process to those areas of responsibility expected of their roles.

Conclusion E

The leadership style of administrators affects the production, and high centralization does not necessarily lead to high production.

Discussion. In schools where the perception of the administrators' leadership style is that they do not show a high level of consideration and support for all members of the staff, then members will feel that the administrators do not fulfill the role expectations or need-dispositions of the members.

Implications.

1. When organizations are highly centralized, administrators should exhibit an impersonal orientation and support all staff members equally.

2. The input of the specialists should be considered based on the merits of the issue and a decision should be made by the leaders of the organization based on the input.

Conclusion F

Organizations high in centralization, high in formalization, and high in stratification do not necessarily increase job satisfaction when they become highly complex.

Discussion. Job satisfaction is not increased in schools where there is high complexity and high centralization, formalization, and stratification. The result is that people with the expertise are not always involved in making final decisions. The hierarchical arrangements are burdensome to those who have expertise in a particular area. Individual experts are somewhat frustrated and do not exhibit high satisfaction with their job.

Implications.

1. When individuals are hired because of expertise in a particular area, then their input for decisions about that area should receive major consideration by the administrators.
2. Highly complex organizations can foster job satisfaction by limiting high centralization, high formalization, and high stratification.

Conclusion G

Organizations high in centralization, high in formalization, and high in stratification do not increase adaptiveness by being highly complex.

Discussion. Highly centralized decision making, highly formalized rules and regulations governing behavior in an organization, and the high status awarded to those in the upper levels of a hierarchy tend to limit independent attempts to solve problems and propose change. Individuals low in the hierarchy assume all changes will come from the top down and often hold back proposals they feel should be considered. Individuals hired for complex jobs because of their expertise may find they need approval from the top-level administrators before initiating any change. Change is thus a slow and cumbersome process at the school.

Implications.

1. Organizations that are highly complex can only be highly adaptive when they are not highly centralized, formalized, or stratified.



2. Administrators should utilize the talents of those with the expertise as fully as possible when making organizational decisions.

#### Conclusion H

A number of conclusions emerged concerning the decision-making processes for curriculum and instruction in schools wherein a discrepancy between the perceived decision-making style from the point of view of the administrators and the actual decision-making style from the point of view of the staff members exists.

1. Individual departments may be isolated with limited contact with other departments.
2. Individual departmental leaders often support or reject curricular choices based on how the curricular choice will enhance their departments and not based on school-wide needs.
3. Decision choices may be politically made by the decision makers based on political power and influence.
4. The top administrators as the final decision makers may be perceived as showing uneven support for various decisional issues based on their personal interests and political power or influence.

### Implications.

1. Administrators should initiate a needs assessment for educational needs of the entire school and share that information with all staff members.
2. The top-level administrators should insist that curricular decisions be made based on schoolwide needs.
3. When the process for decision making is formally identified as a rational model, administrators should insist the model be followed.

### Conclusion I

Administrators can control the direction of change within an organization by tightly controlling all budgetary decisions.

Discussion. Most organizational change that affects curriculum and instruction requires some increased or redirected funds. The administrator can control what will be done and how it will be done through budgetary power. The administrator can limit proposed change by not sharing budgetary decisions or budgetary priorities with the staff.

### Implications.

1. Administrators should share budgetary information and budgetary decisions with the staff and indicate how the budget decisions relate to the total educational program of the school.
2. The principal is the key to the shared decision-making process when it is applied to budgetary concerns, and should

facilitate the budget-making efforts of others to ensure they are involved.

#### Conclusion J

Administrators may determine the effectiveness of faculty, parent, and student advisory forums by using or not using the input of these groups when making decisions.

Discussion. When faculty, parents, and students are encouraged to participate in advisory forums, they expect to have their input reflected in the final decisions. If they believe that their input is not desired or used, they will become frustrated with the process.

#### Implications.

1. In systems where advisory forums are established to encourage input from faculty, parents, and students, administrators should actively seek their advice and make decisions reflecting their input.

#### Conclusion K

Decision making in schools often tends to correspond with a bureaucratic politics model of decision making.

Discussion. In schools where the bureaucratic politics model is followed, decisions and actions of the bureaucracy are intraorganizational political resultants in that what happens is not chosen as the best solution to a problem, but is chosen as a



result of compromise, conflict, and confusion among officials with diverse interests and unequal influence, and emerges as a result of bargaining along regular channels among individual members of the bureaucracy. Confusion results if there is not a clearly articulated philosophy of education and some individuals have more political influence than some other individuals in the same role. The stance taken by each individual is determined by his or her personal position in the organization and personal influence with those who hold final decision-making power. Individuals successfully or unsuccessfully represent particular positions in the bargaining process based on their ability to persuade, to form coalitions, to bluff, and/or to maneuver other people in the organization.

#### Implications.

1. Decision makers should be aware of problems that result when organizational decisions are arrived at using the bureaucratic politics model. Such problems include solutions determined based on the acceptance of those with power and influence and not based on detached analysis; solutions determined based on incomplete information with the information controlled by the final decision makers; limited communication among the various decision makers; and decisions agreed to or opposed because of the relative advantage afforded the individual rather than the organization.



### Conclusion L

An appropriate mix of the various stages of leadership coupled with different leadership styles at different stages is often necessary to facilitate the change process.

Discussion. Top administrators sometimes have difficulty fulfilling all of the various stages of leadership. For example, attempted leadership by the principal may never move to the stage of accepted leadership because a significant number of staff and community concerns are not dealt with and solved. New structures may only be initiated for a part of the system. Additionally, the leadership style of the administrators is a concern for the members of any social system. A political style practiced by the administrators may produce uneven perceptions that the administrator practices goal emphasis, interaction facilitation, and support behaviors regularly with those perceived to have political influence or power, but not nearly so often with those who are perceived as not having political influence or power.

### Implications.

1. Administrators should consult the staff and examine their concerns to be sure a proposed change is understood and accepted by the staff.
2. Administrators should vary their leadership styles at different leadership stages and should develop support mechanisms for the staff.

### Conclusion M

Administrators may often be forced to defend failing programs, and the defense may stem as much from the need for political survival as from any need to bolster their self-esteem.

Discussion. By examining programming controversy in schools, support for the above conclusion can be seen. Despite concerns of the community and professional educators, administrators continue to support failing programs. Political and leadership skills are necessary to blunt the criticism of those who oppose the program.

### Implications.

1. Educational organizations should be structured so that it is possible for the members of the social system to admit that a change may not be accomplishing the anticipated goals.

2. The political aspects of a school should be considered by the leaders of the school. One's philosophy of education and goals for change should acknowledge the political realities of the social system.

### Conclusion N

There is a separate series of steps in the change process for leaders and members of a social system.

Discussion. Present change theory assumes that leaders and followers are usually at the same step of the change process. Analysis of the change processes in schools points out that the members of the social system expect the leader to have a clearly

articulated philosophy of education; a sense of vision in terms of a set of symbols; ideologies, languages, beliefs, and rituals about how he or she wants to change the goals of the system; and an assessment of the social system in terms of needs, political realities, and agenda for change.

The leader then moves through the change process one step ahead of the members. The leader's initiation phase is coupled with the members' evaluation phases. This continues through the change process so that the leader is already evaluating the overall system and goals as the members are renewing their efforts to reach the stated goals.

#### Implications.

1. The leader should clearly articulate a philosophy of education, develop a vision of change for the organization, and assess the organization to determine a plausible agenda for change.
2. The leader should incorporate the evaluative efforts of the members as one initiates the change process.

#### Conclusion 0

There is a dynamic interrelationship between leadership and membership, and leadership style becomes a critical variable in determining the success or failure of the change process.

Discussion. As the leader initiates a change, the interrelationship between leaders and followers becomes a crucial factor. Members must be convinced of the need for the leader's philosophical



positions, understand the vision of the leader, and feel they have input in the change process. As the change process continues, leader style can affect the commitment of the members and determine whether they will choose to endorse his or her proposed change.

Implications.

1. At the initiation phase when the leader is attempting change, one should provide goal emphasis and support for the members as they evaluate the system and the proposed change.

2. As the leadership is accepted, and one implements the change through the initiation efforts of the members, the leader must facilitate work and the interactions of the members.

3. As the leadership efforts are implemented, and one routinizes the change through the implementation efforts of the members, one must provide work facilitation and support for the members.

4. As the leadership efforts become effective, and one begins to refine the changed goals through the routinization efforts of the members, one must emphasize the goals and facilitate member interaction.

5. As the leader attempts renewal efforts, while the members are refining the goals, one must reemphasize the goals and show support for the members.

6. While the members renew their efforts to reach the goals, and the leader begins to evaluate the goals in terms of possible



new goals, one must provide goal emphasis and interaction facilitation.

#### Conclusion P

There is an interactive relationship between leadership style, leadership stages, change phases for both leaders and members, and decision involvement. Decision involvement exists as a result of interest, expertise, and because an individual is expected to represent constituent interests in which he or she may not be interested or have expertise.

Discussion. Decision involvement usually refers to who is involved, the frequency of their involvement, and their level of involvement. Researchers (Allutto & Belasco, 1972; Conway, 1976; Davis, 1978; Mohrman et al., 1978; Speed, 1979) have said who is involved is determined by interest and expertise, but an analysis of data from the site indicated that people were also involved because they were the representatives of various constituencies. Frequency of involvement has been identified by a scale of "very often" to "never." Level of involvement has been identified by a scale of "make the decision" to "no involvement."

In social systems that indicate they follow a participative decision-making model for rational decision making, leadership, change, and decision involvement dynamically interrelate. The interrelationships point to several implications.

### Implications.

1. During the initial leader phases of change while one is developing a philosophy of education, experts should provide information often.
2. As the leader develops a vision, experts should often help formulate alternatives.
3. As the leader assesses the system, experts should often suggest alternatives.
4. As the leader initiates the change process, provides goal emphasis and support for the members as they evaluate the system, those with interest and expertise should often help make the decisions.
5. As the leader implements the change, provides work and interaction facilitation for the members as they initiate the change, those with interest and expertise and those representing constituent interests should often help make the decisions.
6. As the leader routinizes the change, provides work and interaction facilitation for the members as they implement the change, those with expertise and those who represent a constituency should often help make the decisions.
7. As the leader begins to refine the change, provides work and interaction facilitation for the members as they routinize the change, those representing constituent interests should help make the necessary decisions.

8. As the leader attempts to renew the system and provides goal emphasis and support for the members as they refine the system, those with interest and expertise and those who represent constituent interests should often help make the decisions.

9. As the leader evaluates the effectiveness of the goals and provides goal emphasis and interaction facilitation for the members as they renew their efforts to obtain the goals, those with expertise and those who represent constituent interests should often help make the decisions.

#### Implications for Research

The implications discussed previously dealt with practice and assumed the grounded theoretical models identified in Chapter IV were valid. This concluding section suggests necessary research to validate the grounded theory.

Further verificational research is needed to determine the impact of the newly identified political dimensions of the social systems model. Earlier, Speed (1979) pointed out the need for practicing administrators to have a background of theoretical knowledge about the impact of persuasion, bargaining, and power play on decision making. The study indicated new political variables for both the normative and personal dimensions of the social systems model. Further research could determine the extent of the impact of these political variables on the organizational structure.

Further research also could identify how political influence is acquired and what effects it has on the proposed outcomes of the social system.

Political factors seemingly affect the leadership options of the administrator, and support the trapped administrator concept identified by Fox and Staw (1979). Further research is needed to determine if the escalation process as identified by Fox and Staw is linear or whether the escalation process is curvilinear and directly affected by the political decision-making style of the administrator. The definition of leadership identified by Lippman (1973) may also need to be expanded to determine how political factors impact on leadership.

The dynamic interrelation of leadership and change and the need to consider a series of earlier phases of change engaged in by the leader were indicated by this study. Further research is needed concerning successful change efforts to determine if the early leadership phases of change were engaged in and contributed to the successful change effort.

The impact of leadership style on the change process and the identification of different leadership styles for different change phases confirmed the conclusions reached by Neiner (1978). Further research could determine whether or not the leadership style identified as necessary for each phase of change is the appropriate style for that phase.



Research on decision making has indicated that questions of decision participation are determined by involving those with interest and expertise. This study and the two companion studies (Brittenham, 1980; Zimman, 1980) indicate that individuals are often involved in decision making, even though they may have little interest or expertise, because they represent constituent interests. Research needs to be conducted to determine the impact of representative decision makers on the decision process as well as on job satisfaction of their constituencies.

The data from this study revealed a dynamic relationship between leadership, change, and the decision-making process. All facets of the model developed to show the relationship needs to be further analyzed and tested at different research sites. Research about change efforts by administrators and the breakdown of those efforts needs to be compared with the proposed model of the relationship between leadership, change, and decision making to test the model's explanatory power and to determine future modifications of the model.

Finally, this study was conducted using an ethnographic case study approach. The benefits of this research approach were readily identifiable. Ethnographic case studies help a researcher grasp the dynamic wholeness of an organization and identify grounded theoretical constructs to explain the organization as an entirety. The next step of verifying the findings of this study,

however, may need to use a combination of ethnographic and quantitative research techniques to obtain a better understanding of specific parts of the whole and to test the grounded theories about the entire organization. A larger research sample may be needed to determine the generalizability of the grounded theories from this research site. Now that the larger relationships have been identified in this one research site, ambitious research combining many methodologies is needed to verify the variables making up these larger relationships and to test their interrelated nature.

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APPENDIX A

ABSTRACT OF PROPOSED RESEARCH



## ABSTRACT OF THE PROPOSED STUDY

The major purposes of this study are: (1) to describe and explain fully the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in an innovative senior high school; and (2) to generate grounded theory about the administrative organization, processes, and behaviors in an innovative senior high school. The sample school chosen to participate in this study is a nationally known leader in implementing individualized learning programs which are compatible with the IGE/S model developed at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center (Klausmeier, 1979). The data of the study will be gathered by means of an ethnographic case study utilizing participant observation, open-ended interviewing, and document analysis. The researcher, together with two co-researchers, will spend three weeks on site and will participate in the social system of the school. At the end of the first week, the three researchers will retreat from the field and determine some tentative hypotheses based on the data. Those working hypotheses will be further tested against the data collected over the next two weeks, refined, limited, and finally stated as propositions. The study will be limited by the biases and abilities of the researcher, the time spent in collecting the data, and the perceptions of the respondents regarding the study. This study should provide a clear understanding of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior within an innovative senior high school, the impact

that the administration has on the school, and generalizable propositions that may be necessary for an innovative senior high school to be successful.

APPENDIX B

INITIAL INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

## INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

## I. Study and Access Information

## A. Identification of the researchers

1. Who we are
2. Affiliation with the Wisconsin Research and Development Center and relationship to the specific school

## B. Relationship of the respondent to the study

1. Why you were selected
2. Anonymity of responses
3. How the responses will be used
4. Human subject release

## C. Purpose of the study

1. General purpose of study: relationship to other educational research and to the specific school
2. Specific purpose of study: examination of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in the specific school

## II. Biographical Data

- A. Educational history of respondent
- B. Community/work history of respondent
- C. Specific history of respondent at the school
- D. Compare and contrast previous history with current experience.



III. Central Open-ended Questions

- A. Discuss the strengths and positive aspects of the school
- B. Discuss the weaknesses and concerns about the school
- C. Discuss the major issues facing the school

IV. Focused Questions

- A. Discuss the organization and structure of this school
  - 1. Organization structure of the administration, staff and students
  - 2. Leadership of the administrators
  - 3. Decision-making processes utilized
- B. Discuss the curriculum philosophy and design at this school
  - 1. Individualized schooling
  - 2. Student achievement/cognitive development
  - 3. Student attitudes/affective development
  - 4. Community learning experience and work experience
  - 5. Basic skills development
  - 6. Curriculum development
  - 7. Resources adequate
  - 8. Administrative role
  - 9. Extracurricular activities
  - 10. Schedule
  - 11. Continuous progress
  - 12. Research

C. Discuss the administration-staff relations

1. Teacher organizations
2. Participation in decision making
3. Supervision/evaluation
4. Staff socialization
5. Staffing needs
6. School climate
7. Morale

D. Discuss the teacher-advisor program

1. Teacher role
2. Guidance role
3. Discipline
4. Guidance and counseling

E. Discuss the administrative impact on the home-school-community relations

1. Communication
2. Student achievement reports
3. Participation/involvement
4. Administrative role
5. Sources of information

F. Discuss the evolution of the school

1. Change processes
2. Attitudes toward change
3. Relations with other agencies

4. Administrative role

5. Research and development

V. Check list--administrative impact on the following topics:

VI. Referrals

Who are some other knowledgeable and informed persons who would be willing to assist in this study and perhaps be interviewed?

Would you be willing to serve as a reference for me to that person by either writing, calling, or allowing me to use your name on introduction?

CALL BACK ACCESS--May we call you back to check for clarification or further data needs?

VII. Follow-up letter of thanks.

APPENDIX C

REVISED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE



## REVISED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

## I. Study and Access Information

## A. Identification of the researchers

1. Who we are
2. Affiliation with the Wisconsin Research and Development Center and relationship to the specific school

## B. Relationship of the respondent to the study

1. Why you were selected
2. Anonymity of responses
3. How the responses will be used
4. Human subject release

## C. Purpose of the study

1. General purpose of study: relationship to other educational research and to the specific school
2. Specific purpose of study: examination of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in the specific school

## II. Biographical Data

- A. Educational history of respondent
- B. Community/work history of respondent
- C. Specific history of respondent at the school
- D. Compare and contrast previous history with current experience.

-2-

## III. Central Open-ended Questions.

- A. Discuss the strengths and positive aspects of the school.
- B. Discuss the weaknesses and concerns about the school.
- C. Discuss the major issues facing the school.

## IV. Focused Questions

- A. Who are the problem solvers in the school?
- B. Who controls the budget and how is the budget developed?
- C. How effective are the instructional supervisors and how is their role different now than when they were departmental chairpersons?
- D. Is there a split between the administration and the staff?  
If so, how much of that split is historically related to a district strike and a curriculum controversy?
- E. Who is responsible for the new building additions?
- F. What is the impact of the superintendent at the school on a daily basis?
- G. How effective is the curriculum? Does it serve the needs of all students?
- H. Is there any articulated curriculum philosophy?
- I. What are the contributions of the principal to the school?
- J. How do parents and students get their concerns dealt with by the school?

APPENDIX D

HUMAN SUBJECT RELEASE FORM

Research StudySTUDIES OF ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANIZATION FOR INSTRUCTION:ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL FOR INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTIONInformed Consent Form

The research study in which you are participating is designed to ascertain the administration's, teachers', students', and community's perceptions of the administrative organization, processes, and behavior in high schools. The purpose of the study is to utilize ethnographic research to analyze administrative impact on high schools to determine what administrative acts may be necessary for an innovative high school to be successful. In conducting the study, the researchers will interview selected individuals, observe school activities, and analyze pertinent school documents.

The anonymity of all participants is guaranteed and no individual, school, or school district will be identified in any reports of the research. It is expected that the results of this research will have both theoretical and practical value to the field of education and to the public at large.

The University of Wisconsin--Madison has informally assured the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (DHEW) that it will assure the protection of any human being exposed to risk in any project or program that DHEW or any of its agencies has been requested to support. A copy of this assurance will be made available to you upon request.

There are no known discomforts or risks associated with any of the procedures in which you will participate and such procedures are in conformity with accepted professional practice.

Any questions you may have concerning the procedure to be utilized in this study will be answered. You are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation in this study at any time.

Please sign below to indicate your consent to participate in the study.

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Name

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Date



# Center Planning and Policy Committee

Marshall S. Smith  
Director

Dale D. Johnson  
Area Chairperson  
Studies in Language:  
Reading and Communication

Marvin J. Fruth  
Area Chairperson  
Studies in Implementation  
of Individualized Schooling

Penelope L. Peterson  
Area Chairperson  
Studies of Instructional Programming  
for the Individual Student

James M. Lipham  
Area Chairperson  
Studies of Administration and  
Organization for Instruction

Thomas A. Romberg  
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Steven R. Yussen  
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Educational Psychology

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